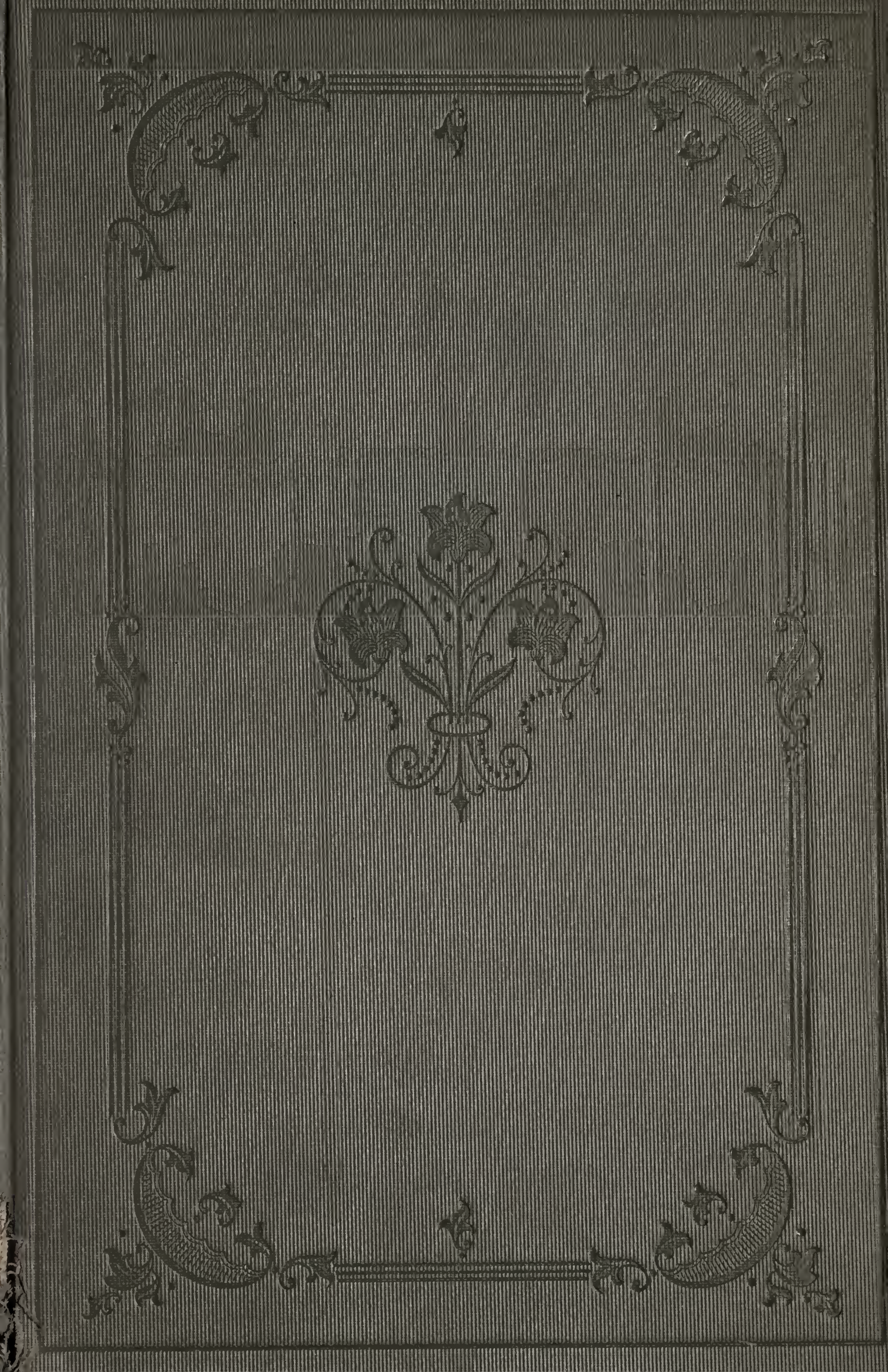

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THE STORY
OF THE NATIONS.

"Far along the world-wide whisper of the south wind rushing warm,
With the standards of the peoples plunging through the thunder-storm;
Till the war-drum throbbed no longer, and the battle-flags were furled
In the Parliament of man, the Federation of the world."

—Alfred Tennyson.

"The conscious aim of education should be to aid the self-emancipation of the pupil by inflaming his soul with the ideals symbolized in nature, revealed in history, incarnated in institutions, and always and everywhere inciting the struggle through which the worm mounts to man and the man to God."

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UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
SPAIN
CANADA
SCOTLAND
IRELAND
TURKEY
PERSIA
DENMARK
BELGIUM
INDIA
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VOL. II

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Contents of Volume II.

	PAGE
INTRODUCTION	xxiii
CHAPTER I. THE ANCIENT WORLD	1
Where Writing Began	1
Egypt—The Most Ancient of Countries	2
Assyria—A Land of War and Conquest	5
CHAPTER II. THE BEGINNINGS OF HISTORY	12
The Phœnicians	12
Cities of Syria	14
Carthage, the Rival of Rome	15
The Persian Empire	16
Cambyses	16
Darius I	17
A Wonderful Record	18
Battle of Marathon, Where Ten Thousand Greeks Defeated One Hundred Thousand Persians	18
Xerxes	19
Thermopylæ and the Three Hundred Brave Spartans	20
Battle of Salamis	21
Cyrus and the Anabasis	21
Alexander the Great	22
The Phalanx	23
Arbela, One of the Decisive Battles of the World	23
Further Conquests	24
Ancient China	25
The Ages	26
CHAPTER III. GREAT EVENTS OF HISTORY	28
The Greeks and their Wooden Horse	28
The Strange Story of the Founding of Rome	28
The Battles of Marathon and Thermopylæ	29
The Death and Resurrection of Jesus Christ	30
The Goths and the Romans	30
A Great Event which Gave the World a Wonderful Book	31
Origin of the Holy Roman Empire	31
The Norman Conquest	32

PAGE

The Moors in Spain 33
An Event that Gave England One of the Greatest Documents of History 33
The Discovery of the Art of Printing 34
The Discovery of America 35
A Great Religious Event in the Sixteenth Century .. 36
Colonizing of Virginia 36
Harvey's Great Discovery 37
Landing of the Pilgrims 37
Discovery of a Great Law of Nature 37
The Invention of the Steam Engine 38
A Great Event in American History 38
A Great Event in the History of France 39
The Louisiana Purchase 40
The Discovery of Photography 40
The Discovery of Electricity 41
The Discovery of Gold 42
A Great Event in Italy 42
Two Great Events in the Progress of Human Freedom 43
Canadian Confederation 44
A War which Changed Two Nations 44
The Spanish-American War 45
Joining the Atlantic and the Pacific 46

CHAPTER IV. THE GROWTH OF NATIONS 47
The Causes of National Growth 48

CHAPTER V. THE NATIONS OF THE WORLD 52

Africa.

The Least Known Continent of the Globe 52
Some Interesting Countries in Africa 53
The People of Algeria the Last of the Pirates 55
Morocco, which Sends Us Beautiful Leather 56
Two Countries Founded for Freed Slaves 59
The Countries of the West Coast 60
South Africa: How the Discovery of Its Great Diamond and Gold Mines Changed Its Little Republic into Colonies 62
The Wonders of the Interior of Africa 63

Alaska.

Discovery and Settlement 65

PAGE

Purchased from Russia by the United States for $7,200,000 66
A Land of Many Wonders 66
The Fisheries 67
The Search for Gold 68
The Useful Reindeer 70

Arabia.

Government Among the Arabs 72
Mecca, the Holy City of Islam 72
History 72
The Arabic Language 73
The Habits and Character of the People 73

Argentine Republic.

Early Discovery by Spanish Sailors 75
Beginnings of the Republic 75
Its Geographical Divisions and Government 76
The Climate, Vegetation, and Natural Wealth 77
Animals and Birds 77
The People, their Habits and Dress 78
The Interesting Indians of This Regions 79
The Finest Capital City of South America and One of the Finest in the World 80

Australia.

A Wonderful Land, Exactly on the "Other Side of the Earth" 82
In Australia It Snows in July! 85
The Oldest and Strangest Animals in the World 85
The "Bushmen"—The Savage Natives of Australia 86
The Discovery of Gold and Its Magic Influence 87
Some of Australia's Chief Cities 88
The Island of Tasmania 90

Austria-Hungary.

How It Came About that Austria and Hungary United 91
Many Different Languages Spoken 92
A Great Standing Army 92
A Varied Climate and a Fertile Land 93
The Historic and Romantic Danube 93
Some Interesting Towns 94
A Brave and Picturesque People 95

PAGE

Belgium.

How Belgium Grew 96
The Model Farmers of Europe..... 97
Some Old Belgium Cities 97
Brussels, the Capital City..... 99
The Battlefield of Waterloo..... 100

United States of Brazil.

A Great South American Republic..... 101
A Wonderful Land 103
The Capital City 104
The People and their Ways..... 105

The Dominion of Canada.

The Golden Quest 106
The Building of Quebec 108
The Growth of Quebec 110
De La Tour and Seigneur Charnisay..... 111
Madame De La Tour, Heroine and Defender..... 112
The Jesuit Fathers 113
Robert-Cavalier De La Salle 114
The Seven-Years' War 115
Canada Under the English 120
Conspiracy of Pontiac 120
The Fourteenth Colony 121
Canada in the War of 1812..... 122
Brock and Tecumseh 122
The United Empire Loyalists..... 123
The Fur Lords of the North..... 124
Events Leading to Responsible Government..... 127
Papineau 130
William Lyon Mackenzie 131
The Canadian Northwest 133
Two Modern Whittingtons 134
Canada of Today 135

Central America.

Something of Its History 137
Central America A Land of Volcanoes and Earthquakes 138
Pre-Historic Cities 139
Central American Indians and their Ways..... 140
The Panama Canal 141

PAGE

The Dangers of Its Climate and How They Have Been Met 143

Chile.

A Small but Progressive Country 144
The People of Chile 146
Chile's Pleasant Capital City 147

The Chinese Empire.

The Antiquity of China; Its Population and Climate, and Its Wonderful River 148
The Government 149
An Intelligent but Superstitious People 149
The Boxer Uprising in 1900 151
Religious Belief of the Chinese 152
The Great Wall and the Great Canal 152
The Houses and Other Buildings 153
The Boys and Girls of China 154
China Awakening 155

Cuba.

A Rich and Beautiful Island 155
Havana, the Capital, a Transformed City 156
Cuba's Long Struggle for Independence 157

Denmark.

The Smallest of the Three Scandinavian Kingdoms 158
The Capital City 159
Some Points of Interest 160
The People Are Intelligent and Industrious 161

Egypt.

An Ancient and Wonderful Country 162
Egypt's Early Civilization 162
Alexandria: Its Wonderful Museum and Library 164
The Suez Canal 166
The Villages 166
The Great Pyramids: Amazing Achievements in Masonry 166
The Sphinx 168
Temples 169
A Famous Piece of Engineering 169

England.

Part of the Great Empire upon which the Sun Never Sets 170

PAGE

The Mighty Empire 174
Liverpool and Chester 174
Shakespeare's Birthplace, Stratford-on-Avon 175
The Rural Districts 175
Agriculture and Manufactures 176
Canterbury: The Resort, Long Ago, of Pilgrims.... 177
Coventry 178
Stoke Pogis, and Its "Country Churchyard"..... 178
Hampton Court 179
Rugby, Where There Is a Famous School..... 179
The Beautiful Cathedrals of England 180
A Region of Legend 181
Historic Yorkshire 182
Scrooby, the Home of the Pilgrim Fathers..... 182
England's Universities 184
Dover and the Roman Road 186
Salisbury—Stonehenge 187
Wessex 188
Plymouth 189
Cornwall, which Supplies Us with Tin..... 189
One of the Most Beautiful Spots on Earth..... 192
Windermere 192
A Poet's Home 193
Other Lovely Lakes 193

France.

French Possessions 195
History 196
The Revolution—The Rise of the Republic..... 197
People and Productions 198
Rouen 198
Tours 199
A Peculiar Palace 200
Amboise 200
Brittany 201
Nantes 203
La Rochelle 203
Poitiers 204
Bordeaux 204
Pau 205
Avignon 205
Marseilles 206

PAGE

Lyons 206
Dijon 207
Character of the People 207
The Children of France 208

Germany.

A Prosperous and Progressive Nation..... 215
German Cities 217
The Black Forest 219
The Rhine 220

Greece.

The Mother of Heroes, Poets, and Philosophers.... 222
Though Conquered by the Turks, Greece Is Now an Independent Nation 224
The Famous Mountains of Greece..... 224
The Boys and Girls of Modern Greece Speak in the Ancient Tongue 225
The Grecians of Today 226

India.

India's Interesting Early History 229
The Black Hole of Calcutta 231
The Trial of Warren Hastings 232
Present Form of Government in India..... 233
India's Population, Its Religion, and Its Castes..... 234
Fakirs, Dancers, Conjurers, Etc..... 237
The Hindu and the English 239

Ireland.

A Land of Laughter and of Tears..... 241
Saint Patrick 245
Belfast 245
Belfast's Shipyards 246
The Giant's Causeway 247
Some Other Irish Towns 247
Beautiful Killarney 248
Cork 249
Irish Products 250

Italy.

A Land of Romance and Poetry..... 251
Its Four Historical Periods 252
The Guelphs and the Ghibellines 253
A United Kingdom Ruled by the House of Savoy.... 254

PAGE

Its Modern Divisions 255
Italy's Powerful Army and Navy..... 256
Some Historic Cities of Italy..... 257
Napoleon's Gift to the Venetians 259
Mantua and Milan 260
Turin 261
Genoa and Her Great Son 261
Cities of Ancient Days 262
The Italian Lakes 264
Joyous Como 264
The Blue Waters of Lugano 265
Majestic Maggiore 266
The Smallest Republic in the World 267
Naples 267
Poverty and Desolation 268
A Realm of Eternal Summer..... 268
Unhappy Messina 269

The Empire of Japan.

A Land of Beauty 270
The People of Japan 272
How the People Live 274
The Dress of the Japanese 276
The Pleasure of the People 277
Schools, Language and Literature 277
The Products of Japan, and Its Animals..... 279
The Cities of Japan 280
The Money of Japan 281
The National Flag 282
The Quick Growth of Japan from Savagery to Civilization 282
The Development of Feudalism 284
A Period of Misery and of Luxury..... 285
The Arrival of Europeans, and Japan's Acceptance of Western Civilization 286

Korea.

The People of Korea 288
The Wealth of the Country 289
The Wild and Domestic Animals of Korea..... 290
The Homes of the People 290
How the People Dress 291
Religion of the Koreans 291

PAGE

Education and Language 292
The Towns and Cities 292
History of the Country 293

Mexico.

A Land of Sunshine and Flowers 295
The Aztecs 296
The Federation of Today 298
Mexico's Wealth; Some of Her Customs..... 299

Netherlands.

A Country Snatched from the Sea..... 300
Dutch Boys and Girls and their Homes..... 302

New Zealand.

A Thriving British Colony 304
Captain Cook Makes Friends with the Natives..... 305
The First Settlers 305
The Maoris 306
New Zealand's Socialistic Government 307
The Islands which Form the Colony of New Zealand 307
Its Capital and Its Principal Cities..... 308

Norway.

The "Land of the Midnight Sun"..... 309
Trondhjen 310
The Northernmost Town in the World..... 311
Christiania, the Pleasant Capital City..... 312

Persia, "The Land of the Lion and the Sun."

An Ancient Country, with a New Constitution and a Very Young Ruler 313
What We Find in Persia 315
A Persian Village 316
A Unique Water-Supply 316
The Capital of Persia and Its Costly Treasures..... 316
What One Sees in the Streets of Teheran..... 317
How the Persians Dress 319
A Persian Bazaar—Ornaments and Rugs..... 319
Religion and Literature 321

Peru.

Her Interesting History 322
The Peru of Today 324

PAGE

Poland.

The Home of a Brave People 326
Poland's Great Patriot 327
Oppressive Serfdom 327
Language, Government, Education 328
Warsaw—The Seat of Government 329

Portugal.

The Country that Supplies Us with Cork 330
A Gentle and Simple People 330
Gayly Dressed Oporto 332
Early Portuguese Adventurers 332

The Roman Empire.

The Founding of a Great City and the Strange Story of Romulus and Remus and the Wolf 334
Early Government of Rome 335
Roman Conquests 336
Hannibal's March across the Alps 337
Education and Religion 338
The Rise of One of the Greatest Men in History 338
The Empire 339

Russia.

The Country 342
The People 345
The Government 351
Language, Literature, and Education 353

Scotland.

"The Land o' Cakes" 355
Some Scottish Cities 357

South America.

The History and Nature of the Country 359
The Countries of South America 363

Spain.

Colonies 369
People and Productions 369
Cities of Spain 371
Noted Buildings—The Escorial 373
The Alhambra 374

PAGE

Sweden.

A Country of Fascinating Stories 375
Its Peculiar Waterways 376
Palaces and Churches 377

Switzerland.

The Playground of Europe 379
Its Importance 380
Its Interesting Towns and Cities 383

Turkey.

Its Extent and Geographical Divisions..... 384
Its People and Its History 384
Its Government and Its Industries 386
Its Towns and Temples 387
Education and Customs 388

The United States of America.

The First English Colony 390
The Pilgrims 392
The Thirteen Colonies 393
The First Congress 393
First Bloodshed 395
Washington in Command 396
First Mention of Independence 397
War in the South 398
Surrender of Cornwallis 400
First Attempt at Union 401
The Constitution 402
War with Great Britain 404
Naval Victories 405
Canada Invaded 406
Washington Captured and Burned 407
Battle of Lake Champlain 408
Battle of New Orleans 409
Peace 411
Monroe and Jackson 411
War with Mexico 413
Slavery and Anti-Slavery 414
The Civil War 416
Peace 421
War with Spain 422
Modern Progress 423

PAGE

The Tide of Immigration 424
Economic Development 425
Commerce 426
Income and Expenditure 427
Education 427

Wales.

History 428
Its Towns and Cities 429

The West Indies.

History 432
Cuba 434
Jamaica 435
Other Islands 437

CHAPTER VI. THE BUILDING OF CITIES.

The Natural Growth of Village and City Communities 438
Upon What Condition does the Location of a City Depend ? 439
The Good and the Evil of City Life..... 441

Amsterdam.

An Ancient and Interesting City 441

Athens.

The New Athens 444
Evidences of Its Ancient Grandeur..... 444

Berlin.

Its Size and Importance 446
Its Parks and Monuments 447

Boston, a City of Historic Interest.

The Founding of Boston by the Pilgrims..... 451
The Beginning and Growth of Boston's Commercial Importance 453
Historic Buildings in Boston 454
Modern Boston 456

Cairo.

A Double City 458
The Mosques and Bazaars of Cairo..... 460
The Citadel 461

Chicago.

The Garden City 461
The Rise of a Great Modern City..... 462

PAGE

Constantinople.

An Interesting Bridge 466
The People of the City 467
The Mosque and Bazaars 468

Florence, the City of the Lily.

Rise of the Medicis—one of the Greatest Families in History 471
Her Great Men and Her Storied Palaces 471
The Duomo and other Famous Edifices 473
The Baptistery—Its Gates 474
Other Interesting Things in Florence 475

Jerusalem.

A City Sacred to Christian, Jew, and Mohammedan .. 475
Jerusalem under Roman Rule 476
The Walls and Gates of Jerusalem 478
The Holy Places of Jerusalem 478
A Spot Sacred to Diverse Races and Religions 481
The Jerusalem of Yesterday and Today 481

Lisbon.

A Charming Capital 482
Its Palaces and Churches 484

London.

The Metropolis of the World 485
The Money Center of the World 487
A Street Rich in Literary Associations 488
England's Sanctuary 492
The Historic Tower of London 494

Lyons.

The City of the Sister Rivers 497
Silk-Making in Lyons 499
Conspicuous Features of the City 500

Madrid.

Spain's Historic Capital 502
Libraries, Art Galleries and Notable Buildings 503

Manchester.

A City which Makes of Municipal Ownership a Successful Enterprise 504

PAGE

Her Varied Industries; Her Canal 506
A Stronghold of Free Trade..... 506

Milan.

The Home of Music 507
Modern Milan 508
The Great Cathedral 508
Other Churches—Leonardo's Masterpiece 509
A Great Hospital 510
The Largest Theater in the World..... 510

Naples.

A Smiling City 511
The Greek Legend of Parthenope..... 511
The Conquest of Naples 512
Street Scenes in Modern Naples..... 512
The Grave of Virgil 513
Vesuvius the Terrible 514

New Orleans.

A Daughter of France 514
The City in Two Wars..... 517
New Orleans as she is Today..... 518

New York.

America's Foremost City 519
Beautiful for Situation 520
The English Displace the Dutch..... 521
An Expanding City 521
Marvelous Manhattan 521
Other Points of Interest 523
The "Up-Town" of the City..... 525
Railway Stations 527
Schools and Charities 528
The Wonders of the City's Nationalities..... 528
A Greater City! 529

Paris.

An Ancient and Wonderful City..... 530
The Splendid Palaces of Paris..... 532
Other Notable Buildings 533
A City of Historic Churches..... 535
The Squares, Boulevards and Parks of Paris..... 535
The River Seine 537
The Surrounding Country 538

PAGE

Pekin.

A City Three Thousand Years Old 539

Philadelphia.

The Quaker City 541
The City's Many Attractions 543

Pompeii.

A Lost City 546
The Tragedy Revealed 549

Rome.

The Goal of Millions of Pilgrims 552
St. Peter's 553
The Vatican 553
A Stroll through the City 554
The Coliseum 555
The Pantheon 556
Churches—Baths—Palaces 556
Models 557

San Francisco.

The Golden City 558
The Romance of '49 559
The Earthquake of 1906 561
The Tent-City 562

St. Louis.

The Mound City 563
The International Exhibition of 1904 564

St. Petersburg.

A City Built to Order 565
What St. Petersburg is Like 566
St. Petersburg's Palaces and Churches 567
St. Petersburg's Supremacy 568

Venice.

The Bride of the Sea 568
The City of the Sea 570
The Grand Square of St. Mark and the Cathedral ... 571
The Campanile and the Doges' Palace 572
The Council of Ten 573
The Bridge of Sighs 573
The Arsenal—The Bucentaur 573

PAGE

Some Venetian Aspects 574
A Last Glance at her Glorious Past..... 575

Vienna.

A City Gay with Music 576
Vienna's Buildings and Streets 577
Viennese Musicians 578
The Hungarian Capital—A Double City..... 579

Washington.

A Capital made to Order..... 580
The Greater Capital 582
The Capitol 583
The White House and other State Buildings..... 584
The Smithsonian Institute 585
Washington's Monument 586

INTRODUCTION.

A LITTLE boy standing in his father's balcony and looking at a political procession exclaimed, "I didn't know there were so many men in the whole world!" One of the greatest pleasures in life is to watch the unfolding of a child's mind, contribute day by day to its increasing stock of knowledge, and witness the wonder and delight with which it hails every new discovery among the facts of the universe. To give that pleasure in a methodical and impressive way is the prime object of this volume, like that of all in the series. The child that reads it, or to whom it is read, may well exclaim that he did not know there were so many things in the whole world. He will get some conception of the extent and importance of his native country, and make some acquaintance with the lands beyond the sea. He may learn what the human race was in the pre-historic ages, how it emerged slowly from barbarism into the light and joy of civilization, and how the early civilization then grew slowly but steadily into the broad enlightenment of after times. He will have some idea of the labor, the study, and the struggle in blood and tears that have been required to secure finally the civil and religious liberty that he now enjoys. He will know something of the discovery of new countries and the movements of great populations. If he is gifted with a little imagination, he will awaken to a comprehension of the vastness of the continents, the beauty of the

islands, and the solemnity and mystery of the great sea. As if he were unconsciously reading a pleasantly written guide-book, he will find his thoughts traveling through one country after another, visiting the famous places and walking the streets of the cities, knowing where to look for industry, where for art, and where for the wonders of nature. If we have written as simply and clearly as we intended, he will understand the main principles of government and know how they are applied by different nations, and may see why one form of government has occasionally been exchanged for another. In introducing the young reader to the world's great cities as they are now, we have striven to let him see how they have come into existence and why they are where they are.

Thus he follows the trail of history from the bone-caves of the Stone Age to the mansions of today, from the rock-cut cuneiform inscriptions that glorified forgotten kings to the immortal literature that the press is forever reproducing, from the lonely convents where learning was nurtured in secret to the hundreds of colleges and the schoolhouses in every hamlet, from the useless pyramids to the Panama canal. He comes finally to our own Republic, and it is hoped that, as his education progresses, he will be able to understand how this latest born of the nations has profited by all that has gone before. Its history is given here only in outline, but it has been the writer's endeavor to present briefly the most important events and the turning-points in such a way as to make them easy of remembrance and not to overload the narrative with details. The child that loves reading will soon find that there is much interesting matter between,

with which he can fill out the picture at his leisure, while the earliest outline narrative should serve to keep his perspective true. Throughout the volume there has been no effort to write down to the supposed level of young minds, for much experience has shown that it is better merely to study clearness and simplicity, giving the little reader an opportunity to rise to the narrative, instead of assuming that this must be depressed for an immature intellect.

R. J.

CHAPTER I.

The Ancient World.

FOR many, many years—we do not know how many—men lived in caves, or booths, or tents, and slowly learned to make cloth and baskets and stone weapons, and even to kindle fire and to melt ore for copper and bronze. But as yet they had no records, no history; they could only scratch pictures on the walls of their caves, or paint them on skins, for they had not learned to write. The history of men begins when they learned to write and so left some sort of account of themselves. First it was crude picture-writing, for they needed to make some record when they began to trade, and had to send messages and keep accounts of what they bought and sold. This picture-writing is called hieroglyphics. First, everything would be a picture of the object to be spoken of, but that would not work well, for of many things one cannot get a picture. A circle would at first mean the sun, and a crescent the moon; but soon the circle would be used to indicate the syllable *sun,* wherever it occurs, as in *Sunday, sundry,* just as we use pictures in rebuses. Then instead of meaning *sun* the circle might mean the first letter *s,* and so for all the other letters, and then we have real writing by an alphabet, and history has begun and is well started.

WHERE WRITING BEGAN.

Now the first peoples we know of who learned to write, and so had history, were the Egyptians and the Babylonians. We do not know certainly which

learned first to write, perhaps the Egyptians. As the discovery how to make fire was a great step out of savagery, and as the art of making bronze tools and weapons was another great step, so the art of writing was another, and the greatest of all, and with writing we begin history, and also civilization.

Writing and civilization began in Egypt and Babylonia because they had great fertile valleys. In the hills and forests men had to live in a scattered way by hunting and gathering wild fruits, like the American Indians, but in the wide valley of the Nile in Egypt, or of the Tigris and Euphrates in Babylonia, a multitude of people could live by agriculture, growing dates, barley and other grains, and could have flocks of sheep and goats also. Those who raised grain had to trade with those who had flocks or who made tools and boats, and so trade and commerce began and cities grew up. There were no places in all the world where men lived which were so well fitted by soil and climate to start civilization and give us history as Egypt and Babylonia. Their valleys were wide, warm and fertile.

EGYPT—THE MOST ANCIENT OF COUNTRIES.

The river Nile created the valley which we call Egypt. It has its source in the mountains, swamps and lakes of equatorial Africa and flows north four thousand miles to the Mediterranean Sea. It is the lower valley of the Nile below the cataracts that was ancient Egypt; and this valley was 750 miles long and seldom more than ten miles wide, except in the Delta, where the Nile broadens out with several channels and flows into the sea. The entire land is thus small, about the size of the State of Maryland, but enormously fertile. There is almost no rain in Egypt, but the river has an annual flood, and the sediment enriches the land. After the floods subside the land is irrigated by canals. The country now has seven million of population.

The history of Egypt begins about 3400 B.C. with the reign of King Menes, who was the founder of what is called the First Dynasty, or family, of kings. Of these dynasties of native kings there are reckoned twenty-six, ending with the conquest of Egypt by the Persians in 525 B.C. Of course, there were people in Egypt before King Menes; and in Lower Egypt, that is the Delta, there were towns with a rude civilization, for we find their pottery and polished stone vessels and weapons, but we know nothing about their petty kings, for they left no writing. We only know that by degrees they united into two kingdoms, one, that of the Upper Egypt, along the narrow valley, and one in the Delta of Lower Egypt; and we know that they had learned that the year had 365 days, and they divided it into twelve months, and they had the beginnings of a system of writing. Menes must have been a famous warrior. He united Upper and Lower Egypt under one rule, and founded his capital, Memphis, near the border between Upper and Lower Egypt. There were six dynasties of what is called the Early Kingdom, ending about 2475 B.C. In this time the great pyramids were built as tombs for the kings; the largest, the Pyramid of Ghizch, was built by King Cheops, of the Third Dynasty. It is the most wonderful structure ever built. It covered thirteen acres, was one-seventh of a mile long on each side, and was made of about 2,300,000 blocks of stones weighing on an average two and a-half tons each. Inside were passages and a chamber for the king's stone coffin. It took 100,000 men twenty years to build it.

After the Sixth Dynasty began the Middle Kingdom, ending with the Twelfth, about 1750 B.C. This was a period of commerce with the Mediterranean Islands and the coast of Syria, and the conquest of Nubia to the south. It was followed by a fearful irruption of rude invaders from Asia called the Hyksos, who ruled for about a century, but were so hated

by the Egyptians that nearly all their monuments were broken up or defaced. In the struggle with the Hyksos the Egyptians learned the art of war, and created a vast empire which ruled over Palestine and Syria as far as the Euphrates. In the Eighteenth Dynasty, beginning 1580 B.C., Thebes became a magnificent capital, whose ruins remain to this day. By the end of this Dynasty the power of Egypt had declined; and after wars with the Hittites it lost its Asiatic provinces, to be recovered only partly under the Nineteenth and Twentieth Dynasties, when the Egyptian power in Asia was utterly lost. In this period Amenophis IV was king, a most extraordinary man, although not a successful ruler. He is the first ruler or teacher known to us who tried to put down the worship of many gods and acknowledge only one God, whom he worshiped under the form of the sun. But the times were not ripe for so pure a religion, and after his death the Egyptians returned to their old belief in many gods.

During the rule of the Hyksos the children of Israel entered Egypt, and their oppression and escape under Moses followed the expulsion of the Hyksos. The mummy of King Rameses II, their oppressor, is now in a Museum in Cairo.

From the Twentieth Dynasty to the end of the Twenty-sixth, 525 B.C., the power of Egypt grew weaker. In this interval, Assyria, under Sennacherib, who, the Bible tells us, besieged Jerusalem under King Hezekiah, conquered Egypt for a season. At last the Persians extended their conquest across Asia to Africa, and the long history of Egypt as an independent nation came to an end. From that time it has been ruled by foreign nations—by the Greeks under Alexander, by the Romans, the Arabs, the Turks, and now by the English.

All travelers who can, visit Egypt to see its Pyramids and Temples. The dry climate has preserved

everything wherever the Nile floods did not reach. Our museums are filled with their statues of kings, their coffins and mummies, their ornaments, and even the religious writings which they buried with their dead. They worshiped the sun as a chief god, and many inferior gods under the forms of the cow, the ram, the crocodile, and other animals. They had a wonderful history, and they must always have the credit of having originated the civilization of which we are so proud. You can read more about this wonderful country in another place in this volume.

ASSYRIA—A LAND OF WAR AND CONQUEST.

It is possible that the civilization and the art of writing began in Egypt before they were known in Babylonia, but it is not certain. The Babylonians thought theirs the oldest, and the Bible, in the story of the Tower of Babel, seems to admit the claim. Certainly, both countries started their own civilization at a very early period, as far back as 4000 B.C.

Like Egypt, Babylonia possessed a great river valley of the highest fertility, and in a warm climate. But the valley had two rivers, the Tigris and the Euphrates, which flowed down from their sources in Asia Minor into the Persian Gulf. At present they are joined into one before reaching their mouth, but in the ancient times they were still separate before the deposition of mud had filled up about a hundred miles of deposit. As in Egypt, the rich valley allowed for a large population supported by agriculture, and this created cities and trade, and required the use of picture-writing at first, which soon developed into writing by syllables after the rebus method. Indeed, the language never attained a perfect alphabet, but required hundreds of signs to designate syllables and words. This writing is called cuneiform, which means wedge-shaped, because the characters were impressed with an angular pen on soft clay. Of these clay tablets

many thousands have been found and are in the museums. Many are historical, literary, or grammatical, but the great majority are simply business documents, such as notes, or receipts, or bills of sale of property. Yet these were generally dated with the year of the king's reign, so that we have more material for history than we find in Egypt, where papyrus was used for writing. Writing on clay tablets, afterward burned, was not affected by dampness.

At a very early period, perhaps 4000 B.C., there were two races that lived in Babylonia, near the Persian Gulf; one came from the East in Persia, and were called Sumerians, and one from the West in Arabia, and were called Akkadians. They had different languages and fought with each other for many years before they joined as one people. They had a number of cities, and each had its petty kings, until some one of them should conquer those around him and establish a fairly large kingdom. They had their various gods, which finally came to be united with a system of worship. Their chief gods were the sun, the moon, and the planet Venus, also a god of the heavens, one of the earth, and one of the sea. They had their myths of how the earth and sky were made, and their story of the Deluge, which was very much like that told in the Bible.

From the beginning the Babylonians were much given to war, because their land was open to attack on all sides, and not, like Egypt, protected by deserts. As early as 2800 B.C. they had carried their army as far as Syria and the Mediterranean Sea, and their influence was nearly always predominant to the north and west, except when, for a while, the Egyptians ruled Syria, or the Hittite Empire resisted them. About 2500 B.C. the city of Ur, in the southwest, where Abraham was born, became predominant, and its kings ruled until about 2000 B.C., when Babylon became the capital under Hammurabi, who is called

Amraphel in the Bible. He came from somewhere in the west, and brought in new deities, of whom Bel Merodach was the chief. His empire extended northwest and westward as far as the Mediterranean, and he was famous for having made the code of laws whose influence is still felt in legislation. About 1800 B.C. the power of Babylon had decayed and an invasion from southern Persia, by the Cassites, conquered all Babylon, and their dynasty reigned for about five centuries.

Meanwhile colonists from Babylonia, of whom Abraham was one, had moved north to the wider valleys and highlands of Assyria and farther west toward Syria; and by about 1200 B.C. there had grown up a strong state which refused to submit to the kings of Babylon. During this time of the decay of the power of Babylonia, and before Assyria grew strong, the Egyptians had ruled Syria, and the Hittite empire had reached as far as Assyria itself. With the weakening of both Egypt and the Hittite power that of Assyria began to be strong, until soon after 900 B.C. it was supreme all over the north, and was able to invade Babylonia and finally to subdue it. We have full accounts of the reigns of succeeding kings, for they had the history of their wars written on great clay prisms, which were safely enclosed in the corners of their palaces, and which are now in the British Museum. Their empire extended from northern Persia in the East, over most of Asia Minor on the north and west, and as far as the Mediterranean Sea and Cyprus, and thence, under two kings over Egypt. Of this mighty empire and of their kings very little was known, beyond what was to be learned from the Bible, until Austen Henry Layard and other explorers (about 1846) opened the ruins of Nineveh and found their monuments and records.

At first their chief capital was at a city called Assur, which was the name of their chief god as well

as of their nation. Afterward the capital was moved further north to Nineveh, which for several centuries was the greatest city in the world, but which, like all the other cities of both Babylonia and Assyria, became a mere vast mound of earth, when its wooden structures were burned in war, and its clay walls had fallen into ordinary earth. From these mounds are dug out the old temples and palaces and thousands of tablets and other monuments. One of their very latest kings, Assurbanipal, founded a great library of religion and science, gathered by his scribes from the old libraries of Babylonia, and the tablets are now in the British Museum and have been translated by scholars.

The Babylonian settlers in Assyria to the north fused with the hardy native tribes and proved a more warlike race. They extended their conquests, and as early as 1275 B.C. one of their kings, in a sudden raid, captured Babylon. In the course of four centuries the Assyrian kings extended their power over the Hittites and other peoples in every direction, until in the middle of the ninth century B.C. Shalmaneser II reached Palestine and took tribute of Jehu, King of Israel, and carved the picture of it on his monument, which is still preserved. Under Tiglathpileser III, about 750 B.C., Babylonia was completely subjected, and in Syria and Palestine, Damascus and Samaria were taken. But the two kingdoms of Palestine, Judea and Israel, and that of Syria, would not continue to send tribute, and in 722 A.D., under Sargon II, Samaria was again taken and the people were carried captive and their lands were given to strangers. Sargon was a great conqueror. He invaded Media on the east, pacified Babylonia in the south, ruled Armenia to the north as far as the Black Sea, and even reached the Caspian, and to the west held Syria and northern Palestine, and the Philistine cities south of Judea, but did not take Jerusalem. In southern Babylonia a very strong rebellion was led by Merodach-baladan, and Hezekiah, the king at

Jerusalem, as the Bible tells us, agreed to help him, but the next Assyrian king, Sennacherib, came down with an army and overran all southern Palestine and besieged Jerusalem, but was obliged to leave it because of a plague which decimated his army. The next king was Esaphaddeon, who determined to punish the Egyptians who had helped Hezekiah and the Philistine cities in their revolt. He carried his army into Egypt and sacked the city of Memphis in 673 A.D.

Another great king, Assurbanipal, succeeded to the throne, and strengthened his power in Egypt by fresh campaigns. A rebellion in Babylonia was helped by the Elamites of southern Persia, but was crushed, and terrible punishment was inflicted on both countries. But the end of the Assyrian power was approaching. Its kings lacked the skill which the Persian and Romans had to organize subject provinces. Rebellions broke out on all sides, but were kept in check so long as Assurbanipal lived. Meanwhile the immense plunder he captured was used to beautify Nineveh and to gather his great library of clay tablets which give us so much knowledge of the history and religion of the people. Then followed several weak kings who had short reigns. During these years an able ruler, Nabopolassar, had claimed the throne in Babylonia, and the last of the Assyrian kings came with a strong army, and drove him back toward his capital. In his fear he called on Egypt for help, and also on the Scythians, or Medians, a rude race just developing strength in northern Persia, who had felt the cruel rule of Assyria. While the Egyptians dallied, the Scythians hastened to help, drove back the Assyrian army to the very walls of Nineveh, and after a siege captured it in 607 B.C. With the utmost ferocity they killed the people, while the king died in the flames of his palace and the whole city was consumed by fire, never to be rebuilt. It fell into a great mound of ashes and clay, the rains dissolving the unburnt bricks, while the flames had broken those that were

burnt, and in a few years it was overgrown with grass and became the pasture-land of flocks. So soon was the city, which had been the greatest capital of the world, utterly lost to sight, that when, two hundred years later, the Greek general and scholar Xenophon passed close by it with his army returning from Persia he did not notice it. It utterly disappeared, and all the neighboring nations exulted at its fall.

Nabopolassar was the founder of a new and magnificent empire at Babylon, which had but a brief existence. The Assyrian provinces had resumed independence, but Nabopolassar soon gathered in the regions of the north, until he found a new danger in the west. Necho, king of Egypt, was determined to take possession of all Palestine, Phœnicia and Syria to the Euphrates, though too late to take part in the capture of Nineveh. On his way Josiah, king of Judah, resisted him and was killed in a battle at Megiddo. The next year, with an immense army, Necho passed on with little resistance.

Nabopolassar was alarmed and sent his son Nebuchadnezzar, who met Necho in battle at Carchemish and utterly routed him. Nebuchadnezzar pursued him to the border of Egypt, and would have captured it if he had not heard of the death of his father, and been obliged to return to take the throne. Meanwhile he had received the submission of nearly all the countries which had previously belonged to Assyria.

Nebuchadnezzar became king in 604 B.C. Three years later, against the strong advice of the prophet Jeremiah, Jehoiakim, king of Judah, refused to pay the annual tribute, and Nebuchadnezzar besieged and took Jerusalem, which never before had fallen, and carried seven thousand men captive to Babylon. Zedekiah became king, but Hophra, king of Egypt, led a combination of the neighboring states to rebel, and Zedekiah, the new king of Judah, joined them. Nebuchadnezzar sent an army to reduce the city, while Hophra, sent an Egyptian army to relieve it. The

Babylonians met them and drove them back, and returned and captured and utterly destroyed Jerusalem and carried the treasures of the temple to Babylon. Zedekiah was taken, his children were killed before his eyes, and then his eyes were put out, while the people were carried captive. This was in 586 B.C.

Meanwhile, Tyre had rebelled, and was captured after a long siege, and Nebuchadnezzar was free to attack Egypt, which he subdued. He then returned to Babylon, living in peace, and devoting himself to making it the most magnificent city in the world. Its ruins are of immense size, and confirm what we read about this ancient place.

After three short and unimportant reigns, Nabonidos became king, and his son Belshazzar led his army. Meanwhile there had grown up in the east a strong power headed by Cyrus the Great. He had united all Persia under him, and carried his army across Asia Minor and subdued Lydia and King Crœsus in 546, and all Asia Minor was divided into satrapies. Cyrus now turned his attention to Babylon. He came from Arbela on the north, crossed the Tigris and spent several years in slow approach, compacting his provinces; but in 538 B.C. he captured Nabonidos a few miles off at Borsippa, and entered Babylon, which yielded without resistance. The failure of Nabonidos and his son Belshazzar to defend the best fortified city in the world is inexplicable. The Jewish story of it is told in the Book of Daniel. Thus the Babylonian and Assyrian power, the greatest empire of the world, became the spoil of the still greater Persian power, which, in its turn, was to yield to the Greek under Alexander, and this was followed by the Roman and the Arab and the Turkish rule. The history of the Babylonian empire ends with the capture of its capital by Cyrus, and the subsequent history of the land belongs to other empires. Like Egypt, Babylonia has to the present day been a subject land ruled by men of hardier races.

CHAPTER II.

The Beginnings of History.

IT is difficult, if not impossible, to get any exact date as the beginning of recorded history. If we admit, as a part of history, the mere recital of a line of kings, with each one's self-glorification sculptured in stone, then every new excavation in Egypt or Assyria may carry the date farther back into a remote antiquity. But if we require something more significant to bear the name of history, the problem is less difficult.

So long as a people dwell in tents, and attend to their flocks and herds, counting their wealth chiefly or wholly in cattle, they are not likely to have anything that is worthy of the name of history—anything that can seriously interest the people of other times and lands. They may carry on an occasional war with a neighboring tribe, and may now and then remove to new territory; but in these events there is nothing that advances them in civilization or greatly benefits those who come after them.

Civilization—and with it history in the best sense—begins where architecture and commerce begin. The more useful the architecture, and the more extended the commerce, the more advanced is the civilization.

THE PHŒNICIANS.

The earliest people that are known to have had extensive commerce were the Phœnicians, whose home was on the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea. How they came there, is an unsettled question. There is some reason for supposing that they emigrated from Egypt, but there appears to be stronger evidence

that they came from the country that borders on the Persian Gulf. They might there have been a seafaring people—which they hardly would have been in Egypt—and might have migrated westward because they saw that in the Mediterranean they would have far greater facilities for a profitable commerce than any afforded by the Persian Gulf and the Indian Ocean.

They built cities, the chief of which were Tyre and Sidon, and they constructed ships and extended their commerce along the shores of that inland sea. These cities were old when the book of Isaiah was written (about seven centuries before Christ), and in the 23d chapter we read "the burden of Tyre."

The peculiar articles that the Phœnicians carried to other countries for trade were principally their dyes and their glass, but they also had a high reputation for manufactures of gold, silver and bronze. The most famous dye was the Tyrian (named from the city of Tyre), a brilliant purple, made from a shellfish, a species of *murex*. This was very costly, as only a small drop could be taken from one fish, and therefore kings and princes were almost the only ones that could afford it. Hence the expression "born to the purple," meaning born of royal blood. The art of making glass was practiced by the Phœnicians; but whether they originated it, is uncertain. There is an interesting old story of its discovery. It is said that a company built a fire of seaweed on the sands of the shore, and when the fire was out they found a hard, shining, transparent substance in the ashes. This was glass, formed from the alkali of the seaweed and the silex of the sand.

Of their colonies on the shores and islands of the Mediterranean the most important was Carthage in Africa; and the word Punic, for Carthaginian, is only a form of the word Phœnician. They finally passed through the Straits of Gibraltar into the Atlantic, and

are believed to have gone as far north as England, where they obtained tin from the mines of Cornwall, and visited the Scilly Islands, by them called the Cassiterides. They also passed down the west coast of Africa, and there is some reason to believe that they sailed around that continent in the ninth century before Christ. One reason that we know so few particulars of their voyages is, that they wished to keep all the trade to themselves, and hence did not publish any account of their enterprises. On one occasion a rival ship followed one of theirs, to learn the route and the destination. When the commander of the Phœnician vessel saw that he was followed, he ran his ship upon the rocks and wrecked it (thus leading the other to wreck also); and when he returned home and told his story, the government paid him for his loss.

The Phœnicians are known also to have launched ships in the Red Sea, and sailed thence to Ceylon and India. And they extended their commerce overland, by means of caravans across the Syrian desert to Babylonia and Armenia. In Armenia they traded for horses, and scientists tell us that the horse originated in that region.

CITIES OF SYRIA.

The Phœnician cities—Tyre, Sidon, Byblus, Berytus, Tripolis, and Aradus—kept each its independence, except when they were obliged to unite for protection against a common enemy. The Assyrians conquered them and held them about two centuries; but on the fall of Nineveh (606 B.C.) they regained their independence. A little later they were conquered by the Babylonians under Nebuchadnezzar, and when Tyre revolted it was subjected to a siege that lasted thirteen years. When the city fell, the conquerors found nothing in it worth taking, for the people had carried their treasures to an island half a mile distant, where they built a new city that was more splendid

than the old. The Phœnicians were not so idolatrous as most of their neighbors; there were no images in their temples.

CARTHAGE, THE RIVAL OF ROME.

Carthage was founded about 850 B.C., by Dido, the widowed sister of a king of Tyre. With a company of nobles, and all her treasures, she sailed westward and entered a bay on the northern coast of Africa. The natives were friendly, and agreed to let her have, for a moderate price, as much land as she could cover with a bullock's hide. She had the hide cut into fine strips, and thus was able to surround a large piece of ground, and build a fortress and, after obtaining more land, the city of Carthage. This city grew rapidly in wealth and power, and finally superseded Tyre in her westward commerce. There is a story that a neighboring king demanded Dido in marriage, threatening war if she refused, and that, while pretending to comply, she made arrangements to celebrate the funeral of her husband, and then mounted the pile and plunged a sword into her breast.

Carthage became the determined enemy of Rome, and some of the greatest wars of ancient times were between those two powers. They were called by the Romans the Punic Wars, which means simply war with Carthage, just as we speak of the Mexican War or the Spanish War. These wars were for supremacy in the lands bordering on the Mediterranean. Rome had driven the Carthaginians out of Sicily, but they had possession of Spain, and their great general, Hannibal, led an army from that country, crossed the Alps into Italy, and fought with great success on Italian soil, until the Romans attacked Carthage (which was called "carrying the war into Africa"), when he was called home to defend his native city. The long struggle ended in the triumph of Rome, and Carthage became a Roman dependency, two centuries before Christ.

THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

It is said that the Persian Empire originated in a warlike people who came from the north and settled about the Persian Gulf, dividing themselves into ten tribes, each of which had its appropriate duties. Three of these cultivated the soil, three were soldiers, and four wandered about, gradually extending the boundaries of the country. For a century these people were subject to the kingdom of Media; then—five and a half centuries before Christ—there was a revolution led by Cyrus, the Medo-Persian monarchy was established, and the empire grew rapidly till it embraced, on the east, a part of what is now India, and on the west the Nile country and what is now Turkey in Asia.

Cyrus besieged and captured Babylon. The Jews, wno had been there in captivity seventy years, he restored to freedom and sent them back to their own country. It is supposed that he had a special sympathy for them because their religion was like his in one respect. The persians were disciples of Zoroaster, who taught that there was but one God, a great and beneficent spirit, who created and ruled the universe. He was called Ormazd. There were about 50,000 of the Jews who thus journeyed back to their own land, having first received again more than 5,000 of their gold and silver sacred vessels, and with a grant of cedars from the forests of Lebanon at once prepared to re-build the temple in Jerusalem.

CAMBYSES.

Cambyses, who succeeded his father Cyrus, thought to extend his power over Ethiopia, a country said to be rich in gold. The Ethiopians were called "the long-lived," because they were very tall and strong and were supposed to live to the age of a hundred and twenty years. Cambyses sent an embassy to say to the king of the Ethiopians that he desired his

friendship. The king answered that he knew better, and added: "Give him this bow, and say, 'The king of the Ethiopians advises the king of the Persians, when his Persians can draw a bow of this size, then to make war upon the long-lived Ethiopians with a larger army. Until that time, let him thank the gods who have not inspired the Ethiopians with the desire to add another land to their own.'" Cambyses, enraged at this, invaded Ethiopia with more haste than wisdom. His army was large, but was poorly provided. A detachment of 50,000 that he sent to destroy a temple was lost in the sands of the desert. The main army soon fell short of provisions, and found no water in the desert, and a large part of it perished miserably. Cambyses was returning to Persia when he was accidentally killed by his own sword as he was mounting his horse.

DARIUS I.

The next great king of Persia was Darius I. In his reign the governors of the conquered provinces were called satraps, of whom there were twenty; and his first task was to subdue a revolt of eleven of these. Darius constructed roads throughout the empire, placed detachments of soldiers at many stations, employed innumerable spies, and established a system of swift couriers who constantly brought to him information from every province. If there was any suspicion of an impending revolt in any province, he at once ordered the soldiers to kill the satrap. But the satrapies were very profitable offices. The satrap of Babylon, for instance, had a daily revenue of two bushels of silver coins, and he kept 17,000 horses and a great number of dogs. Every satrap had a palace and a pleasure-garden. Yet all this was far surpassed by the splendor that immediately surrounded Darius. It is said that 15,000 persons fed regularly at his tables, and when he journeyed he was attended and

protected by an army that was divided into corps of 10,000 each. One of these was called "the Persian Immortals," because it was always kept full in number. If a man died, his place was filled at once. These men were chosen for their height, strength and fine appearance, and their armor was trimmed with gold and silver. They were always kept near the king. He was also accompanied by secretaries, who wrote down every word that he spoke, and his commands never could be recalled. This is alluded to in the expression "as unalterable as the laws of the Medes and Persians."

A WONDERFUL RECORD.

If some of these things appear incredible, we can readily believe them when we consider the great rock tablet of Behistun. This is a perpendicular face of limestone 1,700 feet high, which is inscribed with a long account of the reign of Darius, written in Persian, Babylonian, and Scythic, arranged in five columns. Every paragraph begins with the words, "Says Darius the King," and ends with an acknowledgment that the deed recorded was accomplished "by the grace of Ormazd." Not only was this long record inscribed on the great rock in cuneiform characters, but the letters were protected from the weather with a hard varnish, which has endured to the present day. The workmen must have been drawn up the face of the lofty precipice with ropes. A king that had the means and the power for such work certainly had immense resources at his command. The inscription was deciphered by Sir Henry Rawlinson in 1838.

BATTLE OF MARATHON, WHERE TEN THOUSAND GREEKS DEFEATED ONE HUNDRED THOUSAND PERSIANS.

Darius was the first king that coined money in Persia, and his gold and silver money circulated in the neighboring countries. He sent a great army to punish

the Greeks, who had offended him, and the result was the battle of Marathon (490 B.C.), in which the Persian army of one hundred thousand men was utterly defeated by ten thousand Greeks. Professor Creasy counts this the first of the great decisive battles of the world. Darius was preparing to send another expedition against the Greeks when he died and was succeeded by his son Xerxes (486 B.C.)

XERXES.

Xerxes (who in the book of Esther is called Ahasuerus) inherited his father's hatred of the Greeks, smarted under the defeat at Marathon, and made elaborate preparations to avenge it. Four years were spent in gathering men and materials from all parts of the empire. To the Egyptians and Phœnicians was assigned the task of constructing a bridge of boats across the Hellespont. A storm destroyed the bridge; and thereupon the king ordered that the engineers be beheaded and a pair of fetters be thrown into the sea as an assertion that Xerxes held it to be his slave. Then two stronger bridges were built. The boats were anchored at stem and stern, and six heavy cables, reaching from shore to shore, held them firmly together. A wooden platform, covered with earth, was laid across the decks. Meanwhile, a large detachment of men worked three years cutting a canal across the Athos peninsula, that the fleet—the largest ever launched in the Mediterranean—might avoid the heavy winds and shifting currents that endangered navigation around that point. At Abydos a throne of white marble was erected, from which the king might review his army as it marched down to the bridges. Here the tyrant showed a touch of human sympathy when he reflected that in a few years not one of that vast throng would be alive upon the earth. At sunrise he prayed for success and cast into the sea a Persian sword and a golden cup, and then gave orders for the

march to begin. He himself was preceded by the Chariot of the Sun, drawn by eight white horses, and was surrounded by the bodyguard known as the Immortals, whose armor was completely covered with gold. The whole number of persons—including soldiers, slaves, and camp-followers—has been put at five millions; but this is evidently an exaggeration. However, it was so great that the crossing, using both bridges, occupied seven days and nights, every man being compelled to move as rapidly as possible. Forty-six nations were represented, and the fleet included more than four thousand vessels. Xerxes expected not only to overrun Greece but to conquer all the known parts of Europe.

THERMOPYLÆ AND THE THREE HUNDRED BRAVE SPARTANS.

During these years the Greeks had not been idle. They made every preparation for war, and man for man were superior to the Persians. The first conflict was at Thermopylæ, a pass between Mount Œta and the sea. Here a band of 6,000 men, including 300 Spartans, commanded by Leonidas, stationed themselves to dispute the passage from Thessaly. The Persians could send but a comparatively few men at a time to attack the Greeks, because of the narrowness of the pass, and as fast as they appeared they were cut down by the superior skill of their enemies. At last a native of the country, for a large reward, showed the Persians a mountain path by which they gained the rear of the Greeks. Leonidas then dismissed all but his three hundred Spartans, and with these he remained and fought till all were killed.

Meanwhile storms had destroyed several hundred of the Persian vessels; but there was little further obstruction to the march of their army through Greece—except in the ravines about Mount Parnassus, where Xerxes had sent a detachment to plunder the

temple at Delphi. Great rocks were hurled down upon them from the mountain-sides, and they were nearly all killed. Some of the people submitted to the conqueror, but Athens and other cities, abandoned by their inhabitants, were plundered and burned.

BATTLE OF SALAMIS.

In the strait, about a mile wide, between the island of Salamis and the mainland of Attica, the Greek and Persian fleets fought a decisive battle. The Greeks had only 378 vessels, and the Persians about 1,200; but the Greeks were the better sailors and with brazen prows they rammed the Persian ships, cutting them down and sinking them, while the enemy was also at disadvantage from their too great number in a small space. So complete was the victory that Xerxes abandoned the expedition and returned to his own country. Great numbers of his men, on the retreat, perished from lack of food. A large detachment was left to renew the war against Athens; but this was defeated at Platæa, its commander was slain (479 B. C.) and Europe was then completely freed from the invaders.

CYRUS AND THE ANABASIS.

When Artaxerxes II ascended the Persian throne, his younger brother Cyrus organized an expedition to displace him. He raised an army of Greeks and Persians, and represented to them that they were to exterminate the robbers in Pisidia. Artaxerxes learned of the real purpose of the invasion and prepared to thwart it. The armies met at Cunaxa, fifty-seven miles from Babylon (401 B.C.) The royal army was four times as large as that of Cyrus, but the Greeks fought with their usual valor and skill, and might have been victorious had not Cyrus been slain, which removed the whole cause of the campaign. The ten thousand Greeks who survived were allowed to go,

after their officers had been put to death, and in their retreat they were led by Xenophon, who, though not an officer, had accompanied the expedition. They were two thousand miles from home, and in their long march they were beset with every peril, from the hostile barbarians that hung upon their flank to the frosts and snows of the Armenian table-lands. At last they reached the Black Sea, and their spontaneous cry at their first sight of it—"Thalatta! Thalatta!" ("the Sea! the Sea!")—is famous. Xenophon's account of the entire expedition is a historical classic.

Every change in the monarchy was accompanied by murders and other atrocities, and this was especially the case when Artaxerxes III, who reigned twenty years and carried on several wars with varying success, ascended the throne, and then was poisoned by his prime minister. After an interval of two years, the throne was occupied by Darius III (336 B.C.), one of the few kings who showed some sense of justice and a character for benevolence.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

But now arose one of the greatest men of ancient times—perhaps the greatest—Alexander, son of King Philip of Macedon. He was appointed to the command of all the Greek forces, and planned a great campaign in Asia. With an army of 35,000 veteran Greeks he crossed the Hellespont (334 B.C.), defeated the Persians at the passage of the Granicus, captured Halicarnassus, and wintered at Gordium. Here he found the famous Gordian knot. This was an elaborate knot that held the yoke to a chariot that had been consecrated to Jupiter. An oracle declared that whoever untied it would reign over all Asia. It is said that Alexander cut it with his sword, saying that that was as good as untying it. At all events, his conquests virtually confirmed the oracle. He received reënforcements from Greece, and in the spring met the army

of Darius at Issus and defeated it. In two years he conquered Syria, Phœnicia and Egypt, and then crossed the Euphrates and the Tigris, and found waiting to oppose him an army said to muster a million men. Alexander had 47,000. This was twenty miles from Arbela, but the famous battle that ensued takes its name from that town. Darius had carefully prepared the ground for the contest, cutting down hillocks and smoothing and rolling it, to give his cavalry the best opportunity for action.

THE PHALANX.

The great strength of Alexander's army was in the Macedonian phalanx. This was made up of his strongest and best trained troops. They carried shields on their left arm and in their right hand spears twenty-four feet long. They were formed sixteen deep when going into action, and the ranks were at such intervals that the heads of six ranks of spears showed in front. With a formation as deep as this, it was impossible for the front ranks to flinch, if they had wished to, for they were pushed on by those behind. When they were in action the shields, held above their heads, overlapped like the shingles on a roof, so that the phalanx looked somewhat like a huge turtle, and most of the arrows and javelins of the enemy glanced off from it. This phalanx was placed in the center of the battle line.

ARBELA, ONE OF THE DECISIVE BATTLES OF THE WORLD.

Darius had prepared two hundred chariots with long scythes projecting from the ends of their axles, and he appeared to think that the Greeks would stand still and let these chariots be driven through them like mowing-machines. Instead of that, when the battle was joined, the Greek light cavalry rode out boldly to meet the chariots, hurled their javelins at the horses and the drivers, and then cut the traces and seized

the reins. A few of the chariots escaped them, but the Greeks opened their ranks, giving them a free passage to drive through, and then captured them in the rear.

Alexander was at the right of his army, Darius at the center of his; and the soldiers on both sides fought with steady courage. The Greeks were outnumbered and outflanked, but they were superior in discipline and experience, and when the phalanx pierced the Persian center, and the king's charioteer was killed, Darius mounted a swift horse and rode from the field. This disheartened his army, and it soon followed him. At the river Lycus, where there was only a narrow bridge, large numbers of them were drowned.

Alexander promptly followed up his victory, captured the stores and treasures at Arbela, and pursued the flying enemy. Darius was seized by one of his satraps, who carried him away and, when closely pressed by the Greeks, mortally wounded him and left him by the roadside. Alexander, coming up, covered the body with his own royal mantle and ordered a great funeral procession and honorable burial. Afterward he captured the treacherous satrap and had him executed.

Such was Arbela, which is counted among the decisive battles of the world because it marked the fall of the Persian Empire.

FURTHER CONQUESTS.

After the battle of Arbela, Persepolis, Susa and Babylon surrendered peacefully to Alexander. At the same time a body of Greek mercenary soldiers who had formed part of the army of Darius went over to the conqueror, who then marched through and subdued one province after another, and founded a city, named for himself, on the Jaxartes. He had previously founded the more famous Alexandria on the Mediterranean (described in the article on Egypt). Two years

later he crossed the Indus and invaded the northwest province of India. Here he met an army that came against him with elephants, but after a bloody battle he defeated it. And here he founded two cities, one of which he named Bucephala, for his favorite horse, and the other Nicæa, from the Greek word for victory. He then wished to cross a branch of the Ganges and penetrate central India, but his soldiers refused to go any farther from home. They said they had fulfilled their terms of enlistment and endured hardships enough.

Alexander therefore turned back, built boats to descend the Hydaspes river, founded two more cities and garrisoned them, and then set himself to organize and make secure the empire that he had won. He married a daughter of Darius, and assigned eighty rich Persian women to eighty of his officers as wives. At the same time ten thousand of his soldiers married Asiatic women, and he gave presents to them all. He raised 20,000 Persian troops and taught them the Grecian tactics. He is said to have improved the countries that he conquered, clearing the rivers from obstructions to navigation, encouraging commerce, inspiring the indolent Asiatics with something of Grecian energy, and spreading the Greek language and literature. The story that he sat down and wept because there were no more worlds to conquer can hardly be true, for he knew of Italy and other lands to the west, which he had not yet approached. He was planning a grand campaign to subdue every country as far as the Pillars of Hercules (Straits of Gibraltar), when he died of a fever, at the age of thirty-two.

ANCIENT CHINA.

Of ancient history in other parts of the world very little is known except that which is told in the articles on the various countries. The empire of China is very old, and the Chinese are believed to have prac-

tised the art of printing and manufactured gunpowder centuries before those things were known in Europe. And Chinese philosophers of our day, when asked why China has so little of machinery and modern improvements, answer that they understood all those things long ago, but do not have them now because the empire has an immense population, many of whom would be deprived of employment if machinery were introduced.

Cultivation of the silk-worm and manufacture of silken fabrics originated in China, and every precaution was taken to prevent any exportation of the worms, by which the industry might be established in other countries. There is a story that a traveler concealed some silk-worm eggs in a hollow in the head of his walking-cane, and thus brought them to Europe. The old Greek story of the Argonauts—how Jason and his companions sailed eastward to obtain a golden fleece—has been explained theoretically as a figurative representation of an expedition to China to get silk.

THE AGES.

Beginning with the most ancient pre-historic times, those who have studied the origin of the human race divide the times into what they call the Stone Age, the Bronze Age, and the Iron Age. When the Stone Age began, nobody knows. Every few years some new discovery relating to it carries it farther back into the dim past. That was the time when men had no use of metals; all their weapons and implements were made of stone, bone, or wood. In some of the great caves in the United States there are heaps of flint chippings, showing that, long ages ago probably, men had worked there, making arrow-heads and knives—the only kind they knew how to make. And some such implements have been found in the geological stratum that is called glacial drift, at least 10,000 years old.

After a time men learned to use copper, the most

easily worked metal except gold, and still later they learned to harden it with tin. They were then in the Bronze Age. When the mounds in the United States are opened, they show that the Mound-Builders were in that Age, for many things made of copper and gold are found in them. The great copper mines near Lake Superior show plainly that they were worked by some pre-historic people, and it is supposed that these were the Mound-Builders. It is a mysterious fact that the North American Indians never worked those mines, and knew nothing of the use of copper. They were still in the Stone Age when white men came to this continent, and that is one reason that it has been so difficult to civilize them; they could not leap at once over the mighty gulf of thousands of years between the Stone Age and the Iron Age. And they knew nothing about the Mound-Builders—not even a shadowy tradition. It appears to be certain that that strange people had passed away—either migrating to the south, or swept to death by a pestilence—before the Indians came into the country.

When men had mastered the more difficult art of making iron from the ore, the Iron Age began, and from that time the progress of civilization was comparatively rapid. Iron is the king of metals, and one may almost say that its production gauges the extension of commerce and the strength of nations. In the Middle Ages (called also the Dark Ages—5th century to the 15th) civilization was almost at a standstill, but little iron was made from the ore; and in the walls of the Coliseum and other ancient structures one may see great scars where the iron bars that ran through the stones were dug out and carried away to be worked up into other forms.

CHAPTER III.

Great Events of History.

IN this chapter we give our young readers a brief record of some of the great historical events which have had important results in shaping the destiny of men and nations, and have briefly indicated their significance and meaning.

THE GREEKS AND THEIR WOODEN HORSE.

The siege of Troy is half-mythical, half-historical. Homer's Iliad relates the abduction of the beautiful Helen, wife of Menelaus, King of Sparta, by Paris, son of King Priam of Troy; whereupon 100,000 Greek warriors, in twelve hundred ships, invaded Priam's domain, led by Agamemnon, Achilles and Ulysses. The siege lasted ten years. Finally the besiegers constructed a huge, hollow wooden horse, into which mounted one hundred Greek soldiers. The horse was left at night outside the Trojan walls, and the Trojans, thinking it was some engine of destruction abandoned by the enemy, dragged it into the city, whereupon the Greeks emerged from the horse and fell upon the people. Troy was destroyed, and Helen was restored to her husband. The site of ancient Troy has been discovered, in modern times, to have been in Asia Minor, a short distance south of the Hellespont, and a German scientist, Dr. Henry Schliemann, thoroughly explored it in 1870-82. This famous siege had a lasting effect upon literature, but very little upon history.

THE STRANGE STORY OF THE FOUNDING OF ROME.

Rome is said to have been founded 753 B.C., by a tribe of wandering people led by twin brothers,

Romulus and Remus, half-mythical characters, heirs to the Kingdom of Alba Longa. They were thrown in infancy into the woods to die, by their usurping uncle, and were nursed by a she-wolf until a shepherd rescued them. In manhood Romulus killed his brother in a quarrel and became leader of the people that had followed them to the banks of the Tiber. Inhabitants were found for the new city by establishing a refuge for slaves and murderers, and by carrying off the Sabine women from a feast. This led to a peaceful union between Sabines and Romans, and the city later became mistress of the known world, sending her laws, arts, literature, and industries into the many countries reached by her conquering armies, most of the effects of which are evident in present-day civilization. Her wonderful history is recorded at length elsewhere in this volume.

THE BATTLES OF MARATHON AND THERMOPYLÆ.

In the year 500 B.C. the Greeks had captured Sardis from the Persians, who fell upon them later with great slaughter, stole their wives and children, and burned their cities. The brave Greeks that remained (10,000 Athenians and 1,000 Platæans) met the enemy advancing for further conquest on Marathon, a plain on the coast of Greece (490 B.C.), and a decisive battle followed, resulting in the expulsion of the Persians from Europe, with a loss of 6,400 men, while the Grecians lost only 192. Ten years later (480 B.C.), at Thermopylæ, the Persians, through the treachery of a Greek, were more successful. In the words of Creasy, a great historian: "Marathon broke forever the spell of Persian invincibility. It secured for mankind the intellectual treasures of Athens, the growth of free institutions, the liberal enlightenment of the western world, and the gradual ascendancy for many ages of the great principles of European civilization."

THE DEATH AND RESURRECTION OF JESUS CHRIST.

No two events in human history are more widely celebrated or have had more influence upon human affairs than the Crucifixion and the Resurrection of Jesus Christ, whom Christians for more than nineteen hundred years have accepted and followed as the Son of God—the Saviour of men. Good Friday and Easter Sunday are celebrated today in every quarter of the globe by millions of people as representing the two greatest occurrences in human history. These events gave to the world a new Ideal; a new Leadership; a new Object of Worship; a new Faith; a new Hope; a new meaning to the Past, the Present, and the Future. They have vitally touched Art and Music, History and Literature, and, indeed, every department of Human Life and Thought, with a new inspiration, and may truthfully be said to have changed the whole life of the world. The relation of rich and poor; learned and unlearned; prince and peasant; teacher and student; have all been affected by the tragedy of Calvary, and who can estimate the influence for good to the children and youth of the whole human family? The Crucifixion and the Resurrection are the two central facts of the Christian Religion. As you will read the story of Art in Volume VII, and the story of Literature in Volume VI, you will see how powerful has been the influence of these two great events, and the Life of Jesus you will find in Volume XI.

THE GOTHS AND THE ROMANS.

In the year 376 A.D. the Western division of the Teutonic people called Goths—the vanguard of vast races that for ages had been slowly populating Eastern Europe and Northern Asia—were fleeing from the Huns and begged admission to and protection of the State of Rome. They were allowed to colonize in Lower Mœsia, but were so oppressively treated by the

Romans that they revolted, and a war followed, ending with the defeat of the Romans and the death of the Emperor. The Goths retained nominal possession of the sovereignty of Rome, though they still lived independently by themselves. Their king, Alaric, became commander-in-chief of the Roman forces in Illyricum, and during four years drilled his men. In 408 he ravaged Italy, and entered Rome, pillaged it, killed thousands, and enslaved many more. Alaric occupied Rome four years. The Goths developed so rapidly in civilization and military skill that later, when they overran Europe, they left their mark everywhere, notably in the peculiar style of their architecture, called Gothic.

A GREAT EVENT WHICH GAVE THE WORLD A WONDERFUL BOOK.

Mohammed, the Arabian prophet, was born in Mecca in 570 A.D. When he was forty years old he announced himself as an apostle of God, sent to abolish idolatry and to restore the true faiths of the prophets Abraham, Moses, and Jesus. For this he was persecuted, and was obliged to leave Mecca; and this flight is called the Hegira ("departure"). He went to Medina, drawing multitudes to his faith, and then began the development and spread of Mohammedanism into a world-religion, which flourishes still in the Orient and has about 200,000,000 followers. Mohammed wrote a book called the *Koran* as a guide for his followers, which became the Sacred Scriptures of the Mohammedan religion. Its influence has been vast and it still guides the life of a large part of the human race. You may read more about this book in the story of the Bibles of the World in Volume VI.

ORIGIN OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.

Charlemagne, son of Pepin, King of the Franks (French), was born in 742; he became King in 768,

sharing the kingdom with his brother, at whose death he made himself master of the whole empire, which included a large part of Germany. By his intellect and liberality he attracted the wisest men to his court; but his great work was the establishing of the Christian religion, as embodied in the Church of Western Europe, which for many years had been extinct. The two great Christian powers then were the Pope of Rome and the Frankish King; and when, in 800, the Pope crowned Charlemagne Emperor of the Romans, and established the Holy Roman Empire, he bound together Church and State in a union which thenceforth held a leading part in the world's affairs. Charlemagne died in 814.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

In 1604 Harold, a claimant of the English crown, was shipwrecked on the coast of France and was compelled to remain there by William, Duke of Normandy, until he would take an oath to marry the Duke's daughter and help him to obtain the crown of England. Harold complied, and was allowed to return home. When Edward the Confessor died, the English chose Harold for their king, and he accepted, declaring that his oath to William was not binding because it had been extorted. William thereupon obtained a banner blessed by the Pope for the invasion of England, gathered the most formidable army the western world had seen, and landed in England Sept. 29, 1066. Fifteen days later was fought the battle of Hastings, in which Harold was slain and the Norman Conquest of England was begun. On the following Christmas Day William was crowned in Westminster Abbey, and he reigned until his death in 1087. This conquest, which brought together the military power and skill of the Normans and the industry and sturdy domestic character of the Anglo-Saxons, produced a nation that has become the greatest of world-powers.

THE MOORS IN SPAIN.

In 709 the Mohammedan Arabs conquered most of the Spanish peninsula and set up their dominion there. While the rest of Europe was sunk in barbarism and ignorance, education and the fine arts flourished among this clever people. After a time the local Moorish governors began to set themselves up as petty kings; wars among them followed, which so diminished their power that the Spanish Christians rose against them successfully, and finally drove them out of the country in 1491. Historians regard their expulsion as the beginning of the Spanish decline in power, for after their departure agriculture, commerce, and manufactures ceased to prosper in Spain, but the finest examples of their architecture and decorative work remain in that country to this day, and their effects are shown in all parts of the world.

AN EVENT THAT GAVE ENGLAND ONE OF THE GREATEST DOCUMENTS OF HISTORY.

The rule of King John of England was marked by stupidity, tyranny, weakness, and bad government, and he was doomed to one of the most humiliating experiences that have ever fallen to the lot of an English monarch. Under the feudal law of William the Conqueror the ancient liberties of the Anglo-Saxons were greatly curtailed. Matters grew worse under King John, until his nobles assembled in arms and so intimidated the king that he was ready to consent to any terms. A document had been drawn up, setting forth the rights of Englishmen, and at Runnymede, a little island on the Thames, near Windsor, on June 19, 1215, the King was compelled to sign and seal this Magna Carta (Great Charter), one of the most famous documents of history, the foundation of English liberty and the prototype of later declarations of freedom in other countries. It marks the transition from the age of traditional rights to the age of written

law. Three great pledges were secured from the King by this great charter:

1. The King was forced to guarantee that he would not tax the people without the consent of the Great Council.

2. Those accused of wrong-doing should not be punished without a fair trial according to the laws of England, and the courts of law should be removed from the influence of the King's court.

3. The Barons and their retainers were authorized to seize the lands and castles of the King, or otherwise distress him, if he failed to right wrongs when notified of them.

THE DISCOVERY OF THE ART OF PRINTING.

Not quite five hundred years have passed since the first book was printed from movable types. The credit of the discovery of this simple but marvelous art is in dispute between the Dutch and the Germans, the former asserting that Laurens Koster, of Haarlem, invented separate types in 1428; the latter, that the first actual printing was done by John Gutenberg, who indeed was the only one among several claimants of the honor that received recognition as such in his lifetime. The introduction of movable metal types took place in Mainz, Germany, in 1450, when Gutenberg formed a partnership with a rich goldsmith named Faust, who advanced the money to begin business, and to whom Gutenberg taught his secret art. The partnership was dissolved later because Gutenberg could not repay the money. Faust retained the establishment and took a partner named Schœffer. By and by the discovery became public property, and the art spread over Europe, William Caxton introducing it into England in 1474. At last it reached America, where the first book was printed in Mexico by the Spanish viceroy Mendoza, in 1540. With this invention, in place of the books laboriously written by

hand and done up in little rolls, such as constituted the libraries of the Greeks and Romans, we have printed books which a machine can turn off by the thousand in less time than it took a copyist to make one of those little rolls. And even cheaper and more widely spread, by means of this invention, are the thousands of newspapers published throughout the civilized world. The History of Printing and the Printing Press you will find in Volume X.

THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries a shorter route to India than any then known was the object of ambitious navigators. The Portuguese, before 1500, had searched the west coast of Africa and passed the equator; and in 1498 Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope on his way to India. Meantime Christopher Columbus had planned a route of his own to India and was the first to think of seeking it by sailing westward. His scheme met many discouragements, but at last Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain fitted him out with three small vessels. On Aug. 3, 1492, Columbus set sail toward the southwest into an ocean never before navigated. Twenty-one days elapsed without sight of land; the sailors were mutinous, but the commander persuaded them to sail on. At last, at two o'clock on the morning of Oct. 12, 1492, land was sighted. It was the island that Columbus named San Salvador, to commemorate his preservation. He believed that it was near India, which belief he held all his life, and took possession of the country in the name of his sovereigns. In 1513 Balboa, a second explorer from Spain, landed on the Isthmus of Darien (now Panama), climbed the rocky heights, and was the first white man to behold the vast ocean of which he took possession in the name of Spain and called it Pacific, from its apparent placidity. The discovery of the New World, and the fact that the earth

is a globe, was the greatest event in secular history, because in doubling the area to be occupied by civilized man it also doubled all the resources of civilization.

A GREAT RELIGIOUS EVENT IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

One of the greatest and most important religious movements in the world's history is that known as the Protestant Reformation. Its earliest leader was Martin Luther, a monk born in Saxony in 1483, who was famous for the power and independence of his preaching. He declared his belief in the exclusive authority of the Bible and the right of private judgment in religious thought as opposed to the claim of the Church to be the sole interpreter and the only religious authority. The Pope excommunicated him, but he appeared before a great assemblage at Worms, acknowledged all his writings and made a strong defense. He also prepared a new liturgy. The result was the division of the Western Church into two bodies—the Roman Catholic and the Protestant Churches. The Reformation spread rapidly in many countries, and many brave men and women were called upon to suffer death for their faith, for the idea of religious liberty and toleration, as it happily exists in our time, was not entertained by either Catholics or Protestants.

COLONIZING OF VIRGINIA.

In 1585 Queen Elizabeth sent Sir Walter Raleigh with a company to found a colony in America in a region that was named Virginia in her honor. But misfortune came upon them and in the absence of Raleigh the whole colony disappeared, probably victims of the Indians. In 1607 another expedition was sent out by the London Virginia Company, which finally, under the leadership of a remarkably clever and practical man, John Smith, obtained a permanent foothold in the New World. More than a century and

a half later the colony became the State of Virginia, the largest of the thirteen original United States.

HARVEY'S GREAT DISCOVERY.

Until 1628 even medical men supposed that our arteries were filled with air and enclosed the mysterious "vital spark." William Harvey (born 1578, died 1657), a member of the staff of the London College of Physicians, made experiments which proved that the blood found in the veins at any moment had been contained only a short time before in the great arteries and had simply flowed out of the latter into the veins. He demonstrated that the blood flowing from these arteries (connected with the heart and lungs) into the veins, circulates through the body rapidly and continuously as long as life remains, the movement being due to regular contractions of the walls of the heart. Without this great discovery medical science of the present day could hardly be much in advance of that of Middle Ages.

LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS.

When religious persecution in England became intolerable, a company of Dissenters emigrated to Holland, and eleven years later (1620), desiring a land that they could call their own, one hundred and two of them sailed in the ship *Mayflower* across the Atlantic, landed on the Massachusetts coast, and founded the Plymouth Colony, Dec. 22. From this, and from a similar company known as the Massachusetts Bay Colony, who founded the city of Boston eleven years later, grew first the State of Massachusetts and later, virtually, all New England, which more than any other power impressed upon the New World the ideas of republican government and religious liberty.

DISCOVERY OF A GREAT LAW OF NATURE.

While the fact of gravitation had existed from the foundation of the world, and was known to the eyes

of every human being, it was first formulated as a law of nature by Sir Isaac Newton (born 1642, died 1727), who in connection with his mathematical studies demonstrated the rate of its force. From that day all astronomical calculations have been based on the assumption of its existence and uniformity throughout the universe. The exact date at which he completed the scientific calculation of his discovery can not be stated, as it was a somewhat gradual development; and the story that he conceived it from seeing a falling apple is of doubtful authenticity.

THE INVENTION OF THE STEAM ENGINE.

The steam engine was invented by Thomas Newcomen, an Englishman, in 1705, and was improved and made practicable by James Watt, a Scotchman, about 1770. The development of this new means of power led to the invention of the steamboat of Robert Fulton, an American, in 1807, and the railway locomotive by George Stephenson, an Englishman, about 1814. Within a century this new power caused the earth to be traversed by hundreds of thousands of miles of railroad, and the keels of enormous vessels to plow the remotest seas without reference to wind or tide. It also has been turning, night and day, the world's machinery, from the heaviest mill to the most delicate spindle. The history of the Steam Engine is told at length in Volume X.

A GREAT EVENT IN AMERICAN HISTORY.

The thirteen British-American colonies became dissatisfied with the English Government because of unreasonable taxes, restrictions on manufacturing, and lack of representation, and began to be rebellious about 1770. This feeling ripened into open revolt in 1775, which began a war that lasted seven years and resulted in American independence. The most notable incidents of this struggle were the Declaration of

Independence (July 4, 1776) and the battles of Bunker Hill (June 17, 1775), Saratoga (October 17, 1777), and Yorktown (October 16, 1781). The last two resulted in the surrender of the British armies to Generals Horatio Gates and George Washington. Thirty-one years later (1812) another war established the absolute independence of the United States, which had been only grudgingly acknowledged and not fully allowed by the British government. The revolted colonies within a few years bound themselves together in a republic which has been a model for every republic since established—Switzerland, France, Mexico, and all the South and Central American countries.

A GREAT EVENT IN THE HISTORY OF FRANCE.

When the people of France could no longer endure the multiple burden of a corrupt and wasteful court, an army of soldiers, an army of aristocrats, and the domination of a religious system, they broke out into a revolt that developed into the bloodiest revolution of modern times. The movement began with the storming of the Bastille, July 14, 1789, and gathered fury as it went. Louis XVI and his Queen, Marie Antoinette, were condemned for conspiring against the public good, and were guillotined (January 1793). As it proceeded, the movement was led by various conspirators, who finally became suspicious of one another, and denunciation was usually followed quickly by execution. The most notable, Robespierre, was sent to the guillotine with more than twenty of his followers in July, 1794. His execution had been preceded by those of Hébert, Danton, Desmoulins, and (most pitiful of all) Madame Roland, while hundreds of less eminent persons had perished at the hands of

"The red fool-fury of the Seine."

The most furious period of the Revolution is known as the "Reign of Terror." The Christian religion

was abolished by law, and the worship of Reason enacted. At last a reaction set in and put an end to the bloody work. But the Revolution had given opportunity for the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte, who restored law and order, but whose subsequent career as leader of the French army and as Emperor cost France more blood than the Revolution itself. Terrible as the Revolution was, it released the French people from the tyranny under which they had long suffered and started them on the road to prosperity, which, in spite of the grievous episode of Napoleon III, nephew of Napoleon I, has developed to a greater extent than in any other country of Europe.

THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE.

The mouth of the Mississippi River is one of the most important points for national power on this continent. Control of that almost involves commercial control of the great valley of that stream. The power of the original thirteen States was extending slowly westward, with uncertainty as to much of the country, when President Jefferson, in 1803, negotiated the purchase from France, for $15,000,000, of the Louisiana Territory. This covered the region now occupied by Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, and parts of Oklahoma, Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, and the Dakotas. Its exact boundaries are subject to some dispute. But for this purchase Great Britain would have seized the territory at the mouth of the Mississippi and never could have been dislodged from it except by force. Pakenham's expedition there in 1814, which was frustrated by the battle of New Orleans, was made for the very purpose of seizing and holding that territory.

THE DISCOVERY OF PHOTOGRAPHY.

In 1839 a Frenchman named Daguerre discovered that a silver plate could be made sensitive to the

action of light, and that the picture thrown upon it as a mirror could, by certain chemical treatment, be made permanent. This was called a daguerreotype. In 1851 Scott Archer succeeded in producing a satisfactory picture on a thin film of collodion spread on a glass plate. This was called a negative, and, by letting sunlight shine through it upon a sheet of sensitized paper a permanent picture was produced, and the process could be repeated unlimitedly with the same negative. This, developed by various improvements, is the photograph as we have it today. One remarkable use of photography is that by which is produced a raised plate, like an engraving, for printing on an ordinary press. Another is the production of what are called "moving pictures." A series of photographs of a moving scene are taken in rapid succession and these, being placed in a machine that moves them into the line of vision with the same rapidity, produce the effect of the original scene in motion. Still another is the employing of photographs in connection with the telescope, by which heavenly bodies have been discovered that the telescope alone never could reveal.

THE DISCOVERY OF ELECTRICITY.

After Benjamin Franklin's experiments to prove the nature of lightning (1746), scientists in several countries experimented with the production and use of electricity. The idea of using it to transmit intelligence to long distances was soon conceived, and various inventions were made for this purpose, but not one was practicable till Samuel F. B. Morse constructed the dot-and-dash alphabet and invented the telegraph substantially as we have it now. A line for this was first built between Baltimore and Washington, in 1844, and it was immediately successful. Very soon thereafter telegraph lines were built in every country of the civilized world, and in 1866 the first

successful cable was laid across the Atlantic Ocean. A practicable telephone was invented about 1876, and twenty-five years later—most wonderful of all—wireless telegraphy. The use of electricity for telegraphing naturally led to a study of its adaptability for other purposes. Electric lighting came first; then the use of the mysterious agent for traction and for driving machinery situated far from the source of power. This latter application of electricity enables trains of cars to be driven without smoke—a great advantage in tunnels—and the power of a waterfall to be transmitted by mere wires to towns many miles away. The marvelous uses of Electricity in modern life you may learn more about in Volume X.

THE DISCOVERY OF GOLD.

In California, part of the Territory acquired from Mexico in 1847, gold was discovered in 1848, and such a stream of emigration thither followed as made it a State of the Union in 1850. In 1851 gold was discovered in Australia, the field being as rich as that of California. In 1886 gold was discovered in the Transvaal Republic, South Africa, and that is now the greatest gold-producing region in the world. In 1896 gold was discovered on both sides of the border between Alaska and British America, and in spite of the terrible climate a large immigration resulted, and the mines have proved exceedingly rich. These discoveries of gold have had not only a direct effect on the commercial world, but an important indirect effect on colonization and some political movements.

A GREAT EVENT IN ITALY.

Within the memory of persons now living, the map of Italy was divided into provinces under separate governments. These were Piedmont, Lombardy, Venetia, Emilia, Tuscany, Umbria, Rome, the Marches, Abruzzia, etc. And some of these, called the States

of the Church, were under the civil as well as ecclesiastical government of the Pope. The revolutionary movement that ran through Europe in 1848 affected Italy, but did not reach its final result there till 1859-60, when by the statesmanship of Count Cavour and the generalship of Giuseppe Garibaldi the unification of the peninsula was effected, and Victor Emmanuel was made its king. Thus Italy, being unified, is again one of the great Powers of Europe, and for the protection of her extensive coast-line she maintains a navy that ranks next to that of France.

TWO GREAT EVENTS IN THE PROGRESS OF HUMAN FREEDOM.

Serfdom in Russia differed from slavery in other countries chiefly in the fact that the serfs were attached to the land and could neither leave it nor be sold from it.

1. March 3, 1861, the Russian Emperor Alexander issued his decree emancipating the serfs. The landlords were paid for their loss, and the peasants (or former serfs) received grants of the land they cultivated.

2. The invention of the cotton-gin (1793) gave a great impetus to the production of cotton, and did more than any other event to produce a division of interest and political sentiment between the northern and southern sections of the United States. The question whether slavery should be permitted to extend into the Territories became the subject of bitterest contention. When, in 1860, a President was elected on a platform that declared against such extension, the Southern States—declaring that no State had ever given up its sovereignty—seceded and formed the Confederate States of America. The United States Government treated the movement as a rebellion, and called out armies and created a navy to suppress it. A war of four years' duration followed, which ended

(1865) in the complete destruction of the Confederacy, the surrender of all its armies and the abolition of slavery. The conflict had cost 600,000 lives, and loss of nearly all perishable property in the Southern States, and a national debt of about $7,000,000,000. So evidently and rapidly has the industrial and social condition of the Southern States improved since the war that no considerable number of persons in all that section would have slavery restored if it were possible. These two examples of emancipation were followed at some interval by the abolition of slavery in Cuba and in Brazil.

CANADIAN CONFEDERATION.

When the thirteen American colonies revolted against British rule (1775-81), the Canadian colonies remained true to their allegiance, as they were divided from the other colonies by the St. Lawrence River and the Great Lakes. But as they were not separated from one another by any such barrier, the time necessarily came when they realized the wisdom of submitting to the law of consolidation within natural boundaries, and their confederation was happily accomplished in 1867, the capital being established at Ottawa. This confederation renders Canada, while still holding allegiance to the British crown, essentially an independent State, and its growth in wealth and population has been remarkable; notably, its railway and canal systems have been improved and extended, largely with British capital.

A WAR WHICH CHANGED TWO NATIONS.

Prussia had long been prepared elaborately for war with France, having even mapped out the routes by which her armies should invade that country, when Louis Napoleon, the French Emperor, ill-informed as to his own military resources, and irritated by Prussia's thwarting of some of his plans for extending his

dominions, made the nomination of a Hohenzollern to the Spanish throne a pretext for bringing on a war, July, 1870. Every battle was won by the Prussians. The deciding battle was that of Sedan (Sept. 1), with the surrender of the French army of 83,000 men. One political result was the overthrow of the Napoleonic government, and, after a terrible struggle with a suddenly organized *commune* (or pretendedly socialistic government) which held possession of Paris, the establishment of a republic, which endures to this day. Another result was the union of the North German States into the now powerful German Empire, William I being crowned Emperor, in Versailles, Jan. 18, 1871, Paris being still occupied by the German forces.

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

In 1897 the American people were roused to indignation at the outrages against the Cubans perpetrated by their Spanish governor-general, who, in trying to suppress their efforts to win liberty, resorted to acts of the most brutal tyranny. At last the American people, headed by their President, demanded of Spain that her representatives evacuate Cuba, but were met with a haughty refusal. Atrocities continued in Cuba, and the outbreak of war was hastened by the blowing up, in the harbor of Havana, Feb. 15, 1898, of the United States battleship *Maine,* with a loss of many lives. War was declared April 15; the ports of Cuba were blockaded; the President called for volunteer troops, and the first shot was fired at Matanzas, Cuba, April 17, followed, May 1, by the annihilation of the Spanish squadron in Manila Bay. On July 3 another Spanish squadron was destroyed as it came out of Santiago harbor. The war ended in 114 days by Spain's evacuation of Cuba and cession to the United States of the island of Porto Rico and the Philippines. Thus disappeared the last vestige of

Spanish power in the West Indies. After holding Cuba until it should be properly tranquillized, the United States Government released it to its own independence. The acquisition of the Philippines is still considered as having presented to the United States a serious problem for their government and civilization.

JOINING THE ATLANTIC AND THE PACIFIC.

From very early times after the discovery of the Western Hemisphere the idea of cutting a canal through the Isthmus of Panama, thus joining the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific, has been eagerly discussed. Work upon this gigantic undertaking was begun by a French company in 1880, but was abandoned for lack of funds. In 1906 the United States, having secured permission from the Republic of Panama, began to construct a lock canal, to be about fifty miles long, which upon completion (probably early in the second decade of the twentieth century) will divide the Western Hemisphere and greatly shorten the voyage from European ports to the eastern coast of Asia, and the western coast of South America. Incidentally, the Canal is expected to strengthen the United States, in case of a foreign war, by admitting the rapid passage of her fleets from one ocean to the other.

CHAPTER IV.

The Growth of Nations.

NATIONS, like individuals, have a beginning, a growth, a time of greater power and prosperity, and usually a period of decay. The facts and events that govern these processes are various, differing in different cases. Geography and climate are the strongest of the many causes. Some have outgrown their territory, or exhausted the fertility of its soil, and then moved to another region, where the different climate has changed their habits, weakened their bodies, affected their character, and led to general deterioration and decay.

It is believed by scientists that as the earth gradually cooled from its originally molten state it first became habitable at the poles; and as those regions became too cold for comfort, or even for life, the mass of humanity moved gradually southward to the regions that were no longer too warm; while a remnant, still clinging to their old home, followed reluctantly at a long interval. This theory accounts for the existence of the Esquimaux. It seems certain that no people that ever lived in a temperate zone would emigrate northward into a region of almost perpetual ice and snow. On the other hand, let us consider the fact that all the continents are broad at the north, and taper toward the south, the continent of South America being the most remarkable example of this. Let us suppose that as the original population of that continent increased it extended southward, and in so doing found that it continually came into narrower and narrower limits. Then there would be a strife, and the stronger people would drive the weaker

ones before them till they forced them across the Straits of Magellan into those bleak islands called Tierra del Fuego. This would account for the fact that the Patagonians today are tall, strong, and intelligent, while the Fuegians are stunted, weak, and ignorant, perhaps the most so of any race on earth. Of course, this is only conjecture—for the Patagonians have no historical records—but it seems reasonable.

If any such thing took place in Africa, the movement was in the opposite direction, for the southern end of that continent is comparatively broad and is in the temperate zone. Tribes originating near the equator may have bettered their condition and improved themselves by moving southward into what is now Cape Colony; or, originating there, they may have driven the weaker ones northward into the less desirable lands and climate of the equatorial belt. All we know is, that those at the south, discovered by white men, were found to be, and still are, far superior to those in the hotter region.

THE CAUSES OF NATIONAL GROWTH.

In any country, in early times, where there was a considerable population, the people necessarily formed themselves into a tribe or tribes, with tribal government, and the strongest man either was chosen to be chief or made himself so by his own strength. As a tribe increased in numbers and power, it would either exterminate smaller neighboring tribes or add them to itself—extermination being more common in the barbarous state, and consolidation in the partly or wholly civilized. Thus in time small kingdoms would be developed, and as the people would now be too numerous, and too widely spread, for the direct personal supervision of the chief or king, he would be obliged to have assistance, and thus would be formed something like a court and an army. This would give rise to special classes, which would neces-

sitate social regulations and laws; and it would also lead to divisions of labor, which would stimulate invention; and we can readily see how that, in the course of centuries, would develop civilization as we know it. But civilization would necessarily be different in different countries, according to their size, climate, and resources. In the country of the Esquimaux, when invention had proceeded so far as to develop the best methods, with their limited resources, of fishing, hunting, using reindeer and dogs, and constructing huts, it could go no farther, and with that they would remain century after century. In a country like England, with abundance of coal, iron, and other metals, and forests of oak, the spirit of invention would sooner or later lead the people to build vessels that could sail the sea, and in time these would visit the far-off isles of the Pacific. But those islanders never would sail away and discover Europe, because their islands do not furnish materials from which ships are built.

In later times, with civilization fairly developed, the great movements of one people into the country of another have been chiefly these: the invasion of China by the Mongol Tartars; the emigration of the Parsees from Persia to India; the irruption of the so-called barbarians into Italy; the conquest of Britain by the Normans; the Spanish, French, and English emigration to America, and the division of Africa by the nations of Europe. In some of these instances the invaders kept themselves forever separate from the natives; in others, they gradually mingled with them, finally producing a new race different from both ancestors.

The most important and unerring principle in the growth of civilized nations is this, that they must have natural geographical boundaries. If there are two or more peoples within any set of such boundaries, they will ultimately come together and be one people. Thus, under the Anglo-Saxons, England was divided into

seven small kingdoms, known as the Heptarchy. But gradually they came together, because no natural boundaries separated them. Still later, the whole island of Great Britain became united—England, Scotland, and Wales dwelling together as one people; but Ireland, being an island by herself, bounded by deep seas, is an unwilling member of the kingdom, held to it only by military power. The same is true of the small kingdoms that once existed in France, but are now united as the French Republic. Exactly the same thing took place in Spain. But France and Spain do not come together, because the great wall of the Pyrenees separates them forever. Italy was divided in a similar way, but was united into one kingdom in 1860. So, too, the German States were consolidated into the German Empire in 1871. Poland was divided among her neighbors because she had no natural boundaries; but Switzerland, though smaller and less powerful than Poland, has maintained her independence for centuries, because she is buttressed about by the great natural boundary of the Alps. The attempt to divide the United States by the Civil War of 1861-65 was a failure because it strove against this law of nature; and if it had been temporarily successful, the sections would some time have come together again, for there is no strong natural boundary between them.

Archæologists find in various countries proof that successive nations have existed in them, having birth, growth and decay, like animals, and giving up the ground to some other race that in its turn passed away. In the United States, for instance, the red Indian has given place to the white man; before the time of the Indian the Mound-Builders were here; and what races might have preceded the Mound-Builders we can not tell—there may have been several. The dust has been heaped, and the grass has grown, over the graves of innumerable nations.

"States fall, Arts fade, but Nature doth not die"—

and the soil, sometimes exhausted, recovers itself in time and is ready for the next comer. Scientists now calculate that this may continue for nearly twenty million years before our globe is practically used up.

The history of the rise and fall, the life and development of nations is therefore always of interest, and contains many important lessons to the present generation.

CHAPTER V.

THE NATIONS OF THE WORLD.

Africa.

THE LEAST-KNOWN CONTINENT ON THE GLOBE.

NEXT after Asia, Africa is the largest continent on the globe, covering about 11,000,000 square miles. It stretches from latitude 37° in the northern hemisphere to latitude 35° in the southern, so that the equator passes through its centre. Half of its inhabitants have their Christmas in winter, and half have it in summer. Half look southward to see the midday sun, and half look northward. Some, at certain seasons, see it directly overhead.

Africa is called "the Dark Continent"—not because many of its native inhabitants are black, but because it was so long unexplored, and to this day much of its interior is hardly known to white people. Egypt and the countries bordering on the Mediterranean Sea were occupied by civilized people in ancient times, while the remainder of the vast continent was unknown to them, though the Phœnicians are believed to have traded to some extent along its western coast.

Portugal was the first European nation to acquire possessions in Africa; in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries she established stations and obtained territory on the east and west coast. A Portuguese navigator, Bartholomew Diaz, discovered the Cape of Good Hope, at the southern end of the continent, in

1486—a few years before America was discovered by Columbus; in 1498 Vasco da Gama, a more famous navigator, sailed around the Cape and discovered the sea-route from Europe to India. Columbus also was trying to discover such a route when he sailed directly westward and struck America instead. The southern extremity of the continent was the part first extensively colonized by Europeans, both because it is in the temperate zone and because Table Bay, near the Cape (so called because it is overlooked by Table Mountain), is a fine harbor and thus was a most convenient port half-way on the long voyage to India and China. The first settlement here was made by the Dutch East India Company in the middle of the seventeenth century. It purchased land of the Hottentot chiefs, and the colony grew slowly as emigrants from Europe were added to it. Among these was a company of 200 Huguenots, driven out of France by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685).

In 1806 possession of the colony and its territory passed from the Dutch to the English, who have held it ever since. The inhabitants at that time numbered about 20,000. The growth has been steady, until now the chief city—Cape Town, on Table Bay—has 160,000 inhabitants, and one adjoining great territory after another has been added to the colony, under British rule. At the same time, other European powers have been acquiring sections of territory, or "spheres of influence," all around the coast, while explorations have been pushed into the interior.

Now let us look at the older countries on the southern shore of the Mediterranean, and then, following Vasco da Gama, sail around the continent and glance at the varied countries washed by the Atlantic and Indian oceans.

SOME INTERESTING COUNTRIES IN AFRICA.

Egypt is treated in an article by itself, in this volume. Next to Egypt lies Tripoli. This country

has 700 miles of seacoast, but only one good harbor, and its interior is largely covered by a sandy desert. There is not one living stream in its whole territory. Still, small parts of it are fertile and almonds, olives and dates are raised and exported, and the farmers keep sheep and goats. The country possesses some advantage from the fact that it is the best possible starting-point for caravans that cross the great Sahara Desert. The present population is about 1,000,000, mostly Arabs and Berbers. Berbers is a general name for the native tribes that inhabit the mountain regions of northern Africa. They are all Mohammedans, and are fierce and warlike. Tripoli has been governed by Turkey since 1835. Early in the nineteenth century the Tripolitans, like their neighbors, the Algerines, followed the piratical custom of exacting tribune from all European and American ships that visited the Mediterranean. This led, in 1804, to a war in which the American forces defeated the Tripolitans and put an end to the tribute.

Next west of Tripoli lies Tunis, much smaller, but far more prosperous. It is almost as large as the State of New York, and has varied industries—agriculture, fruit culture, the raising of cattle, sheep and camels, tanneries, weaving, mining of lead and coal, and fisheries. It has more than a thousand miles of railway, and several hundred miles of good turnpikes. It was the territory of ancient Carthage, and, with intervals of independence, was successively ruled by the Romans, the Greeks, and the Turks, till the French took virtual possession of the country in 1881, since which date it has been greatly improved in every respect. The inhabitants were Arabs and Berbers, and for a long time those living near the sea were pirates, but in late years large numbers of Europeans have settled there. The Atlas Mountains are the most notable geographical feature. The climate is hot and dry. Tunis, the capital, is a city of about 140,000

A Handsome, Bright-eyed Peasant Girl of Algiers.

inhabitants. Its houses are substantial, and it has manufactures of silk, wool, leather and oil. The streets are narrow, unpaved and dirty; but the houses are built with a central court, which is paved with marble and has a fountain in perpetual play. Tunis has a peculiar interest for Americans in the fact that John Howard Payne, author of "Home, Sweet Home," was American consul in that city and died there in 1852.

THE PEOPLE OF ALGERIA THE LAST OF THE PIRATES.

Still traveling westward, we come to Algeria, a country about four times as large as Tunis. It was inhabited by Moors and Numidians when it was conquered by Carthage. After the fall of Carthage, in the second century, the country was subject successively to the Romans, the Vandals and the Turks, until 1705. Then for a century the Algerines were most persistent and murderous pirates. In 1815 the United States sent a powerful fleet, commanded by Stephen Decatur, to put an end to their piratical practices. Decatur soon fell in with the largest Algerine frigate, which was cruising in search of American merchantmen. He attacked it at once, and captured it in thirty minutes. Two days later he captured another cruiser, and then entered the harbor of Algiers. When the Bey learned that he had lost two of his best ships and six hundred men, he was completely humiliated, and signed, on Decatur's deck, a treaty that bound him to give up piracy, release all prisoners held by him, pay for his depredations, and renounce all claims to tribute from American ships trading in the Mediterranean. Decatur then visited Tunis and Tripoli and enforced similar concessions.

When the Algerines resumed their piratical practices in 1830, the French blockaded their ports, bombarded their capital, and took possession of the country. They held it under military rule, with frequent fighting against insurgent natives, till 1871, when they

established civil government sustained by an army of 60,000 men, half of whom are natives. This has kept the country peaceful in the main, with only occasional outbreaks, and it now has schools and colleges, and sends representatives to the National Assembly in Paris.

The shore line of Algeria is high and steep, and near the coast runs the Little Atlas range of mountains, with fertile valleys and many streams. South of this range is an extensive plateau, then the Great Atlas range, and beyond that the Sahara Desert. The population, made up of nine different races, numbers about 4,000,000. The chief industries are farming and raising fine horses and cattle. Near the coast are many market gardens, which send their produce to European cities. There are 2,000 miles of railway, and 4,000 miles of telegraph lines.

Within a few years it has become common for Americans and Europeans to make automobile tours through Algeria. There are eight cities, the largest being Algiers, the capital, which has 80,000 inhabitants. It is on the slope of a hill, and as the houses are whitewashed every year, it presents a brilliant appearance as seen from the sea. The French have improved many of the streets, which were narrow and crooked, and the town has mosques and churches, a commercial exchange, and a public library. There are lines of steamers to Marseilles and London.

MOROCCO, WHICH SENDS US BEAUTIFUL LEATHER.

We have now reached Morocco, a country twice as large as New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania together, which borders both on the Mediterranean and on the Atlantic. The coast along the Mediterranean is high and rocky; along the Atlantic, low and sandy. Several ranges of mountains cross the country, and the intervening valleys are fertile and delightful. The northernmost point is separated from Spain by the

1. A typical Moor of to-day, as seen in Algiers.

2. A typical Street Scene in Algiers.

Strait of Gibraltar which connects the two seas and is fifteen miles wide and a mile deep. The points of land on the opposite sides of this Strait were called by the ancients the Pillars of Hercules. Morocco is independent, and is governed by a sultan, an absolute, Mohammedan ruler. But Spain owns several places on the coast, the principal of which is Ceuta, and there is often a state of warfare—sometimes very serious—between the Spanish and the Moorish authorities. The Sultan also has a difficult task to keep in subjection the wild tribes that inhabit various parts of the country, and Spain and France hold him responsible for outrages against their citizens in Morocco committed by these tribes. The country is rich in natural resources—various minerals and valuable timbers, and fields that can produce fruits and cereals of both the temperate and the sub-tropical zones—wheat, Indian corn, cotton, rice, sugar, tobacco, oranges, dates, figs, etc. There are also immense herds of cattle, horses and goats. In the forests among the mountains are lions, jackals, panthers, wild boars, hyenas, and other dangerous beasts. Some manufactures are carried on, principally of silk and woolen fabrics and of leather. The fine leather made from goatskin came originally from this country and is known all over the world as morocco. Large quantities of it are exported, but the law forbids any exportation of the goats. The number of inhabitants is about 5,000,000—Arabs, Moors, Berbers, Negroes, Jews, and a few Europeans. If it had a good government and a settled population, this might be one of the most prosperous countries in the world.

The chief city is Morocco, the capital, which is eight centuries old and was once a noted seat of learning, where the Moors sent their sons to be educated. It was enclosed by strong walls, which now are largely broken down, such walls being no longer a defense against modern fire-arms. There are several mosques

in the city, and a great palace for the Sultan. The streets are crooked and dirty, though the supply of water is abundant and cleanliness might be had easily if the people had any idea of its value. The principal industry is the manufacture of morocco leather.

Fez was formerly considered one of the capitals, for the Sultan frequently resided there. It is described as beautiful without and dirty within. Long ago it served as the capital of the Mohammedans in west Africa, who thought it was the finest city in the world. When it was not safe, because of highwaymen, to make the pilgrimage to Mecca, the pious Mussulmans went as pilgrims to Fez instead. In those days it had schools that were held in high esteem. Now it has manufactures of silk, wool, and leather, and it still makes the little red cap that is called a fez, of which it exports thousands. There are valuable sulphur baths near the city. Although Fez has a population of 150,000, its people can reach the sea at Tangier only by a bridle-path. There are no railroads in the country.

The city of Tangier is on a bay in the Strait of Gibraltar, and it has a large trade by sea. It has a fine winter climate, and foreigners are permitted to reside here. It is strongly fortified because of the military importance of its situation. The population numbers about 30,000.

Rabat is on the Atlantic coast and once had a good harbor, which now has been nearly ruined by the formation of a sand-bar. It has manufactures of pottery, leather goods, and brilliant colored carpets for which it is famous. It is strongly fortified, and has about 25,000 inhabitants. The Sultan sometimes resides here.

We will now follow in the track of Vasco da Gama and sail southward, between the African coast on the east and the Canary Islands on the west. We come first to a section of the country called Rio Doro ("River

of Gold''), belonging to Spain. It has little interest or importance, so we will sail on, passing its southern point, Cape Blanco, the coast-line of the great Sahara Desert, Cape Verde in Senegal, off which lie the Cape Verde Islands, till we reach the coast of Guinea. This country—like Guiana in South America—is divided between three European powers, the sections being known as British, Portuguese, and French Guinea. The English coin called a guinea is so named because it was originally made of gold brought from this coast.

TWO COUNTRIES FOUNDED FOR FREED SLAVES.

Next south of this we arrive at two countries that have a similar and interesting history—Sierra Leone and Liberia. Sierra Leone (''Lion Mountains'') is a British colony, which was settled in 1787, to be a home for free negroes. It now has about 200,000 inhabitants and is steadily increasing. It has a fertile soil, but an unhealthful climate which Europeans can not well endure. It exports palm oil, india rubber, hides, and coal. The capital, Freetown, has a fortified harbor and is a naval station. Recently the British Government acquired a large extent of territory adjoining it inland, and many miles of railway have been built to bring out the productions in which that region is so rich.

Liberia, which adjoins Sierra Leone on the south, is an independent republic. It was founded in 1817 by the American Colonization Society, as a home for the liberated slaves. It was made an independent nation in 1847, with a constitution modeled on that of the United States. The president is elected for two years, senators for four years, and representatives for two years. Every man that owns real estate has the right to vote. The population numbers more than 2,000,000; the capital is Monrovia (named for President James Monroe). They have a system of public

schools and the usual institutions of European and American civilization. The colonists and Christian natives are nearest the coast. Inland are several native tribes that are very different. The most important of these are the Mandingoes, who are Mohammedans and hold themselves aloof from the colonists, whom they consider their inferiors. They taunt the colonists with having been slaves—either directly, or indirectly—by exclaiming loudly "Me no slave!" This tribe reads and writes Arabic and works the mines of gold and iron with which their country abounds. In the lower lands of Liberia sugar-cane, cotton and coffee (now the principal industry) are cultivated, and in the highlands the grains and vegetables common to the temperate zone. The exports include india rubber, palm oil, castor oil, and the kola-nut, which has wonderful strength-giving properties, so that a native making a long journey needs no other food than two or three of these small nuts. The forests abound in valuable timber, and as the mahogany of Central America is practically exhausted, dealers are now looking to Liberia for a further supply. Tobacco is used as money, one leaf being equal to two cents.

THE COUNTRIES OF THE WEST COAST.

Now we turn the great shoulder of the continent and sail eastward in the Gulf of Guinea. Here we have the Ivory Coast, the Gold Coast, and the Slave Coast. When there was slavery in Europe and the Americas, the slaves were brought from this region. The divisions are Ashantee, Togo, Dahomey, and Nigeria. The great river Niger, flowing from the northwest, here falls into the Gulf. The European powers that have sliced up and divided among themselves the country on this coast have explored far into the interior in recent years, following up the Niger and establishing many trading-stations. The native King of Dahomey formerly had, besides an

1. East African Children in Garments made of Grass.
2. Kaffir Children at Breakfast.

army of men, a large corps of female soldiers, known as the Amazons. But in a war in 1864 the greater number of them were killed. They are said to have been brave enough, but not very good marksmen.

To follow the trend of the coast we must again turn southward and find ourselves off the shore of Kamerun. This is a large and prosperous territory under the control of Germany. But as it has no features different from the territories on either side of it, we may pass without stopping.

Here we are at the equator, which runs through the territory called the French Congo, which is bounded on the south and east by the great river Congo. If we land and go among the hills and forests, we may see, in his native woods, the gorilla, that huge member of the ape family which comes nearest to humanity. The males are nearly six feet high when they stand erect, weigh about 300 pounds, and are very powerful.

Passing the mouth of the river, we come to a very short stretch of coast of the Congo State, which is under the sovereignty of Belgium. But we must not judge it by its little water front. If we go inland, we find that it soon widens out and stretches far away to the east, until it comprises about one-thirteenth of the continent. Here was done the principal work of the noted African explorer, Henry M. Stanley. One of the most interesting discoveries in this region is a race of dwarfs. On the river and its many branches numerous villages and trading-posts have been established, and there is a large commerce in palm oil, india rubber, ivory, and other products of this extensive region.

South of the Congo State is Angola, which has long been tributary to Portugal. It is more than ten times as large as the State of New York, has several good seaports and a population estimated at several millions, and furnishes a valuable trade. Next south of

this is a territory, almost as large, known as German Southwest Africa. When the newly opened continent was being parceled out to the European powers, of course Germany claimed her share, and she obtained not only this, but also a region on the other side of the continent, just south of the equator, which is called German East Africa. As England has a habit of acquiring important points in other countries (like Gibraltar in Spain, Balize in Central America, and Hong Kong in China), she possessed herself of Walfisch Bay, the best port in German Southwest Africa.

SOUTH AFRICA: HOW THE DISCOVERY OF ITS GREAT DIAMOND AND GOLD MINES CHANGED ITS LITTLE REPUBLICS INTO COLONIES.

Now our voyagers have arrived at Cape Colony, the most valuable part of South Africa, about which something has already been told. Among the early colonists were many Dutch people, called Boers (which means peasants), nearly all farmers. When they became dissatisfied with the governmental management of the colony, they emigrated northward into the unknown interior, and made for themselves a new home in the wilderness. This movement was called a "trek." And some years later, when the expansion of the English colony had brought it near to them, they made another trek, going farther north and establishing two little republics of their own, called the Transvaal Republic and the Orange Free State. These treks through the wilderness were beset with great perils from the savage natives and ferocious wild beasts. In one instance when they were on the march a leopard sprang out of the bushes and attacked a little girl. But her brother, only twelve years old, rescued her and killed the beast. That boy, whose name was Paul Krüger, afterward became President of the Transvaal Republic.

Though this region is almost within the tropics, it

1. A Kaffir-girl asleep upon one of the primitive beds of her tribe, consisting merely of a fiber mat and a wooden pillow.
2. A Kaffir village in Africa, showing boys at play.

has a temperate climate because it is high table-land, much above sea-level. These little republics had long been settled as peaceful, isolated farming communities, when wonderful diamond mines—the richest ever known—were discovered in the Orange Free State, and extensive gold mines in the Transvaal. The discovery of the presence of diamonds was made in 1867, when somebody observed a child playing with a brilliant stone. This proved to be a diamond worth $2,500. These mines, of course, attracted the attention of the civilized world, and there was an inrush of foreigners to work them. Very soon the British Government took possession of the diamond mines by declaring that they were in British territory which it had bought from a Griqua chief, and changing the boundary-line so as to add them to Cape Colony. The gold mines of the Transvaal were not so easily acquired. But large numbers of Englishmen, attracted by them, settled in the republic, and after a time demanded all the rights of citizenship, but would not give up their allegiance to Great Britain to gain them. These were called utlanders (foreigners), and they made so much trouble that in 1899 the result was a war between the two small republics on the one hand and England on the other. While the Boers possessed no such great resources as the English, they were wonderful marksmen—seldom failing to hit whatever they fired at, though it might be in rapid motion—and they had unlimited courage and a determination to defend their possessions. The war, therefore, was very severe while it lasted, and the English were not finally victorious till they had lost 20,000 men. By the spring of 1900 they had captured the two capitals and were able to abolish the republics and proclaim the countries British colonies.

THE WONDERS OF THE INTERIOR OF AFRICA.

If we follow up the east coast, we come to Portuguese East Africa, German East Africa, British East

Africa and Italian Somaliland. In the interior is a country (British) known as Rhodesia, in which are unsubdued tribes, unexplored regions, and (in the eastern part) ruined cities of pre-historic age. Here is a large river, the Zambesi, 1,500 miles long, flowing through a region rich both in minerals and in pastureland. The Victoria Falls in this river are a mile wide and twice as high as Niagara. A little farther north are the great African lakes—Nyassa, Tanganyka, and Victoria Nyanza. The last named, only a little smaller than our Lake Superior, is the long-sought mysterious source of the White Nile. The equator passes through it. Still farther north is Abyssinia, shut out from the sea by small strips of French and British territory. If we go any farther in this direction, we shall find ourselves in Egypt, and if we turn to the west we may be lost in the trackless desert. The wild animals of equatorial Africa include lions, leopards, giraffes and elephants. The African elephant is smaller than the Asiatic and less intelligent.

Several explorers have won enduring fame by their discoveries in the Dark Continent. James Bruce found the source of the Blue Nile in the mountains of Abyssinia in 1770. David Livingstone went to South Africa as a missionary in 1840, and in the course of the next thirty years crossed the continent twice, discovered Lake Nyassa, explored the valley of the Zambesi, and to some extent mapped the country he had visited. John Hanning Speke and James Augustus Grant discovered the Victoria Nyanza in 1863 and proved it to be the chief source of the Nile. Richard F. Burton made extensive explorations in central Africa, which added to the fame he had acquired by his other travels in unknown lands. The work of Henry M. Stanley has been mentioned already.

There are great differences among the numerous native tribes of Africa. Some, like the Zulus, are brave and skillful warriors, whom it has been difficult

1. Missionaries baptizing a Kaffir Child.
2. A Kaffir Wedding-dance in which the whole population takes part, chanting a weird song.

for settlers to conquer. Others are peaceable and disposed to be friendly to white visitors. Few of them have anything like architecture, or even the rudiments of civilization, and some are known to be cannibals. Livingstone appeared to have no trouble in making friends of them wherever he went; other explorers are said to have progressed by murdering them right and left with firearms.

The Europeans that have taken possession of the greater part of Africa have rapidly introduced the institutions of modern civilization. The greatest enterprise as yet projected is a railway to run the whole length of the continent; and some of those who read this page may yet ride, without changing cars, from Cape Town to Cairo—about 5,000 miles.

Alaska.

DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT.

IN the later part of the seventeenth century a boy was born in Jutland, in the northern part of Denmark, whose name was Vitus Bering. He entered the Russian navy when a mere youth, and was so good a fighter, so clever and courageous, that in 1725 the Russian Government sent him as commander of an expedition to explore the Sea of Kamtchatka. He was gone several years, and in 1728 was the first known white man to discover, in the extreme northwest of the Western Hemisphere, the Strait that was afterward called by his name. This discovery included a greater one—that Asia was not joined to America, which had always been supposed. Settlements were made gradually along the coast, which the Russians at one time claimed as far south as San Francisco.

PURCHASED FROM RUSSIA BY THE UNITED STATES FOR $7,200,000.

In 1799 the territory (known as Russian America) was granted by the Emperor Paul VIII to the Hudson Bay Fur Company, a Russian organization, the town of Sitka being the principal settlement. The privileges of this company expired in 1863, and the Territory was purchased by the United States in 1867 for $7,200,000. In 1884 a district government was created, with a governor and a district court, the temporary capital being at Sitka, now changed to Juneau.

A LAND OF MANY WONDERS.

The coast-line of Alaska is greater than that of the whole Atlantic seaboard of the United States. The chief inlets are Prince William Sound and Cook Inlet, on the Bay of Alaska. The Yukon is one of the great rivers of the world, beginning about two hundred miles north of Sitka and running a course of two thousand miles to the Bering Sea. Alaska's four tremendous mountains—Mt. Logan, 19,500 feet; Mt. St. Elias, 18,100 feet; Mt. Wrangel, 17,500 feet; Mt. Fairweather, 15,500 feet—are among the highest in the world.

A glance at any photograph of Alaska, which covers an area of 590,884 square miles, shows that it is a region of magnificent scenery, with great ranges of snow-covered mountains, steep precipices, vast forests, lakes, and rivers. But in this desolate northland the winter lasts nine months, when the sun shines only a few hours each day; the thermometer falls often to 60° below zero, and the Yukon is frozen solid from November to May. During the coldest weather candles are useless, as the tallow is so hard that only the wick burns. In the northern region the short summer is warm and the days are very long. On the eastern boundary the summer season is intensely dry and hot. It used to be thought that grain and vegetables could

not be grown in Alaska, but in later years it has been proved that with proper cultivation potatoes, wheat, barley, oats, rye, and common vegetables can be regularly and successfully raised. Game is scarce, but berries ripen quickly, and fine grass flourishes near the rivers, also many kinds of flowers, even though in midsummer the ground six inches below the surface is frozen.

The native population of Alaska—the only people that can long endure its regions of extreme cold—belong to two stocks, the Eskimo and the Indian. Most of the Russian population returned to their native land at the time of the transfer of Alaska to the United States. The population of this great territory is only little more than 64,000.

THE FISHERIES.

After the Hudson Bay Company retired from Alaska, the hunting of fur-bearing animals was followed for years by the North Commercial Company, and it is still one of the chief pursuits. Seals flourished in great numbers on islands in the Bering Sea, and the United States had trouble with certain foreign countries over their infringement on her sealing territories, but it was settled amicably. Further international dispute arose over a boundary line between Alaska and Canada, and a temporary line was fixed upon until the United States and Great Britain agreed upon the line now shown on all maps of the Territory.

In the waters surrounding Alaska, cod, halibut, herring, and other fish are found in great quantities; but the only commercially important fishing industry is the canning of salmon. Immense canneries have been built on some of the numerous islands, and every year a lively rivalry exists among them as to which shall put up the largest "pack" of the king of food fishes.

THE SEARCH FOR GOLD.

For years after the purchase of Alaska by the United States, the Territory was explored and settled by various commercial companies and by private individuals in the interest of science. Although coal, copper, lead, iron, tin, slate, clay, and other mineral products were discovered, gold is the grand attraction of Alaska, and the only mineral that now receives the serious attention of miners.

It is believed that the first white people that knew of the existence of gold in this desolate land were those who went there in the interest of the Hudson Bay Fur Company, though they did not dream of the richness of the deposit; and, because a rush of miners to the country would have disturbed and driven away the animals whose rare and rich furs produced so much money for Russia, they said nothing about the traces of the precious metal they had found.

In 1867 a steamer found a wounded man drifting in a canoe in Alaskan waters. He said that he and his two partners had discovered gold in Alaska; the other men had been killed by Indians, but he had escaped with only a wound, and he showed some gold to prove his assertion. An expedition set out from Port Townsend very soon, with the wounded man, whose name was Culver, to show them where he had found the gold, but when they reached the place he appeared to have lost his wits. His companions threatened to kill him if he did not reveal his secret, and then he became undoubtedly insane. He died shortly afterward, but on his deathbed he declared he had found gold in Alaska, and said that some day it would be found again.

Gold was discovered in British Columbia in 1873, and the Yukon region was entered by miners in 1882, though several explorers had entered central Alaska the year before, and considerable mining had been done on the upper Yukon. By 1886 about forty miners

were at work on the Stewart River, and the largest amount mined by any one was $6,000.

The first real excitement over this region came in 1887, when Forty-mile Creek was discovered, across the boundary line between Alaska and Canada. Gold was found in large quantities. The first news of it was brought by Tom Williams, a messenger who brought letters for the post-trader, and who lost his life owing to the terrible hardships of the journey. The wonderful news spread rapidly, and, in spite of the unbroken country, the fields of snow and mountains of ice, and the lack of means for providing food and other necessaries of life, by 1888 men had begun the rush to the north. A great deal was taken out for several years both in Alaska and in British Columbia, over the border, and the next grand excitement came in 1896, when a man named Carmack discovered the marvelous gold deposits in the Klondike region. Here three men washed out $14,200 worth of gold in eight days. The earth in a "pan" (two shovelfuls) yielded first $100, then $280. Until this time miners had considered five cents to the shovelful as rich soil. One nugget of solid gold was found worth $583.25. A miner, who did not feel satisfied with the "claim" he had staked out, sold it for $85. The next owner dug deeper, and in six weeks it yielded $130,000.

Small wonder that such news started another rush northward. But the difficulties and suffering endured in reaching the wonderful region were so great that many lives were lost. Still, great numbers overcame all obstacles, endured all privations, and reaped a golden harvest not only from the Klondike region, but from many parts of Alaska, chief of which was Nome, on Norton Sound, 250 miles south of Cape Prince of Wales. Here a great discovery of gold was made in 1898, and from a few driftwood houses on the beach, it is now the most populous city in Alaska,

with a population of more than 12,000. Other large towns are Skagway, on the border between Canada and Alaska; Juneau, the capital; Fairbanks, near the middle of the Territory, and Seward, on the Gulf of Alaska, named after William H. Seward, who was Secretary of State under Presidents Lincoln and Johnson, and who negotiated the purchase of Alaska from Russia.

The education of the young people, both natives and white, has been carefully looked after since 1884, and all towns and villages have good schools. The little Eskimos and Indians compare favorably with the children of the civilized white race. At Sitka there is a fine training-school for native boys and girls, where carpentry, shoemaking, and other trades are taught to the boys, and sewing, cooking, and domestic science to the girls.

THE USEFUL REINDEER.

The men who had charge of establishing the schools discovered that in many places the Eskimos were dying of slow starvation from having been deprived of the natural products of the sea, on which they and their ancestors had lived for ages—the whale, the walrus, and the seal. Whalers and sealers had killed off these creatures or driven them up to the Arctic Ocean. A plan was formed to introduce large numbers of Siberian reindeer into Alaska, to save these starving people—a plan in which the United States Government coöperated with the greatest success. The reindeer is to the Eskimo what the bamboo is to the Chinaman: food, clothing, shelter, utensils, and transportation. These useful animals now serve not only Eskimos, but whites in many capacities, one of the greatest of which is bringing into the country, over ice and snow, where no other means of travel could make headway, supplies of groceries, breadstuffs, and green food, which are of the greatest im-

portance in preserving the health of the mining population.

The only railway in operation is the short Yukon and White Pass Line, opened in 1899. In the days of the great gold craze in 1897, it was a terrible task to cross this pass with an animal and pack, and many died in the attempt. Now the trip is one of comparative comfort and pleasure. The scenery is magnificent, and when one wishes to "do" the great Northwest thoroughly he will find plenty of tourist trips arranged that will take him in luxury through this entrance to the land of gold.

Arabia.

SOUTH of Asiatic Turkey, and surrounded by three bodies of water—the Red Sea, the Mediterranean, and the Gulf of Arabia—lies the peninsula of Arabia, dry, hot, and with little vegetation considering its area, which is 170,200 square miles, somewhat larger than California. It has no forests and no large rivers, but in the southern region there is a large mountain range, and its most celebrated mountain is Sinai, from which Moses gave the Law to the Israelites. Its four great deserts are what makes so large a part of Arabia a sandy waste. In many parts of the country rain never falls, and the towns of Muscat and Mocha are among the hottest inhabited places on earth. For these reasons the population of this great peninsula is only about one million.

Near the mountains and the torrents flowing from them, however, are many fertile valleys called *wadies,* and wherever the soil is irrigated it produces cotton, coffee, tobacco, dates, barley, rice, and sugar. The animal kingdom is represented by the camel, antelope, ibex, hyena, wolf, jackal, wild ass, wild boar, monkey,

and ostrich. The Arabian horse is celebrated for its beauty, endurance, and speed.

GOVERNMENT AMONG THE ARABS.

Few nations have made so little progress as the Arabians. Their government is neither a monarchy, nor a republic, nor an aristocracy. The people are divided into tribes, each tribe being subject to a chief, who looks after his people's behavior and right, and settles all disputes. Excepting this slight governing power, the Arab follows his own sweet will and calls no man lord or master. The tribes are divided into two classes: the wandering Arabs called Bedouins, who have no habitations but tents, and the farming and mercantile Arabs, who cultivate the arable part of the land and carry on business in the towns.

MECCA, THE HOLY CITY OF ISLAM.

The chief town is Mecca, the most celebrated city of the Islam faith, as being the birthplace of Mohammed the prophet (born in 570). About two hundred thousand pilgrims go there every year to visit the Kaab, the most sacred shrine of Islam, toward which, when praying, all Mohammedans must turn their faces. The great treasure of the shrine is a black stone, probably a meteorite, which receives the veneration of the Mohammedans as having been thrown down to them from heaven. None but Mohammedans are allowed to enter the seven-minareted mosque that has been built to surround the sacred "square house" that contains this stone. A pilgrimage to Mecca is considered a sure passport to the highest joys of the Mohammedan paradise.

Medina, the Prophet's burial-place, is another sacred city, though not so much visited as Mecca.

HISTORY.

The ancient conquerors never touched Arabia, because of its lack of fertile land. In 107 A.D. the

Roman Emperor Trajan was the first to penetrate to the interior. After the advent of Mohammed the different Arabian tribes united, and founded empires in three continents, from all of which they were driven out in time, but not without leaving in each permanent monuments of their rule through their wonderful art and architecture. Other nations have invaded Arabia, but the only foreign power having any Arabian possessions now is Great Britain, which has taken Aden.

THE ARABIC LANGUAGE.

The Arabic language is closely related to the Hebrew, and looks very much like it when written. Like the Hebrew, it is read and written from right to left. Arabian literature has produced some very poetic writers and brilliant story-tellers. Besides the Koran (the Mohammedan Bible, which you can read about in Volume VI), the romance of Antar is most widely known next to Arabian Nights. Hariri's "Assemblies," also, is a great favorite among the Arabs, esteemed as their chief literary treasure after the Koran. It is a collection of brilliant and witty stories related to "assemblies" of appreciative listeners.

THE HABITS AND CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE.

The Arabs of the tents do not move about continually, as some readers imagine. They have their summer and winter camping-grounds, but except to remove according to the season they do not travel about much. Their camps resemble gipsy camps in our country, only they are more luxurious and picturesque, with the inevitable Oriental rugs and cushions disposed for comfort.

The Bedouins are a cheerful people, and show much dignity and courtesy in their bearing and manners. But they are quick in anger, and a dispute among them often leads to violence and murders.

The men are, of course, the breadwinners of the

tribe, but their means of support are very small. Their camels are their chief support, and a more destitute condition can hardly be imagined than that of an Arab that does not own one. The men wear a white shirt with flowing sleeves, and over it a robe of camel's or goat's hair; a turban or a fez complete the costume.

The women attend to domestic duties, grinding corn, weaving garments of goat's hair, and preparing meals. They are all closely veiled, and wear clumsy, shapeless white garments. The young girls tend sheep and take them to pasture, and wait upon their fathers and brothers. They arrange their hair in curls on the forehead, and tie on their heads a red cloth decorated with beads. A loose frock, a string of beads, and a large blue mantle, constitute their full dress. The little children are usually without clothing of any kind, although if the weather should turn cold a piece of goat-skin or an old bit of tattered camel's-hair cloth may be tied about them.

They do not think highly of girls in Arabia. Most parents feel very sorry when a girl baby is born. The mother weeps, and the neighboring women come in to cry with her, as if coming to a funeral. But when a boy is born there is great rejoicing and many festivities occur.

The fathers of families who own camels make a living chiefly by continually crossing the dreary, sandy desert and the country between India on the east and Africa and Europe on the west, carrying by camel caravan the products of one country to another.

The desert children acquire only such education as they may receive from their parents—supposing these to have any learning. In the towns there are Moslem schools, where boys are taught to read the Koran and to reckon simple numbers. Christian missionaries have established schools in some of these towns, where those boys and girls whose parents will allow them to attend receive the benefits of European education.

Argentine Republic.

EARLY DISCOVERY BY SPANISH SAILORS.

IN the days when Spain was making her way triumphantly into all lands, one of her navigators, Juan de Solis, in sailing along the eastern coast of that part of our continent called South America, discovered in 1516 La Plata River, and in the name of Spanish monarchy took possession of the country through which it ran. La Plata ("Silver River") might well have attracted the young navigator, for it has a wider mouth than any other river in the world. Fifty miles up the stream it is seventy-five miles wide; but at its mouth, where it flows into the Atlantic Ocean, it has a width of one hundred and seventy miles. Its sudden rise and rapid current toward the ocean can be seen as far as a hundred miles out at sea.

At that time the only inhabitants of this region were Indians, who thought the Spaniards, with white-sailed ships, were gods or angels come to visit them. Little movement toward white settlement was made until twenty years later, when Don Pedro de Mendoza, from Spain, landed on its shores and became governor of the settlement of Buenos Ayres, which today is the chief city of the province of the same name and the capital of the Argentine Republic. The city was not firmly established against the attacks of Indians—who had begun to realize that their Spanish visitors were quite the reverse of angels—until after it had been destroyed and rebuilt three times, and meantime other cities in the interior had been founded.

BEGINNINGS OF THE REPUBLIC.

All the provinces forming what is now the Argentine Republic were under the rule of the Spanish Viceroy of Peru until 1778, when another viceroyalty was created of the provinces of Rio de la Plata, Para-

guay, Uruguay, and Bolivia, with Buenos Ayres as its capital. This rule continued until 1810, when many sections of South America under Spanish control began to murmur and then to revolt against Spain's invariable policy of tyranny and cruelty; with the result that in 1813 the viceroy was driven out. After a period of disorder the Spanish flag was abandoned and the Argentine Confederation was proclaimed. Spain did not submit tamely to the revolt of her Western possessions, fighting went on for years in different parts of the continent; but, notwithstanding much internal strife and revolution among her own jealous and ambitious leaders, besides wars with other South American countries who could not agree with her in maintaining steady opposition to Spain, Argentine never again came under the Spanish yoke. She has had many serious disputes with Chile, her neighbor on the other side of the Andes, regarding boundary lines of Patagonia; but, in spite of these and some exciting financial crises owing to the extravagance and mismanagement of several of her rulers, the history of the Republic has been one of steady progress.

ITS GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS AND GOVERNMENT.

The Republic covers an area of 1,135,840 square miles. It is divided into five distinct sections: the regions of the Andes; the portion between Uruguay and the Parana River; the famous *pampas,* or southern plains; the northern plains, which extend as far as Bolivia; and the region of Patagonia and a part of Tierra del Fuego, at the extreme south, which were annexed after the revolution of 1860, when the Republic was established.

The Argentine government has a president, elected once in six years, and a constitution almost exactly like that of the United States. Freedom of the press, of association, of property, and of education, are assured to everyone.

THE CLIMATE, VEGETATION, AND NATURAL WEALTH.

The climate is dry, warm and healthful. The characteristic feature of the country, except in the region of the great range of the Andes Mountains, is the plains, or pampas, where the grass, on which the vast herds of cattle feed, is almost the only vegetation. There are no trees on these plains, and no stones for hundreds of miles south of Buenos Ayres. Toward the north, vegetation begins; alongside of the rivers it is luxuriant, and there the land is very fertile for crops, but elsewhere it is sandy and sterile.

The national occupation of the whole country in long-ago times was the rearing of sheep and cattle. It is the same today. The raising of crops of commercial value is of comparatively recent date, but from the time of the importations of sheep and cattle, in 1550, these animals have been the greatest producers of wealth to the country.

ANIMALS AND BIRDS.

In the region southwest of Buenos Ayres have been found some wonderful fossil remains of animals of enormous size, some of which are similar to the animals peculiar to the country today—the armadillo (or ant-eater) and the sloth. When the country was discovered by De Solis the only domestic animal was the llama, which was used as a beast of burden, also as food, while its long hair was woven into garments. This animal, a member of the camel family, is peculiar to South America and is still found in many states. Other wild animals are the puma, the tapir, and the ounce.

The birds of South America in all countries are noted for the gorgeousness of their plumage. The most brilliant parrots and humming-birds are found there; and birds peculiar to the southern part of the Western Hemisphere are the condor, the American ostrich, and the vulture.

Grains and fruits from Europe have been introduced, and can be cultivated successfully; and in the mountainous northwest gold, silver, copper, tin, besides marble, jasper, and precious stones, have been found; but none of this natural wealth can be profitably developed until the country has better railway transportation. At the end of the first ten years of the twentieth century there are little more than ten thousand miles covered by rails in all this great country, which in some parts is still very little known by white people. Thousands of square miles are still covered with thistles, which grow to the height of small trees, and the prickly cactus forms great thickets.

THE PEOPLE, THEIR HABITS AND DRESS.

The inhabitants of Argentine Republic (including Patagonia) are Indians of three distinct tribes; Spanish, French, and Italian immigrants, and also a large contingent of Englishmen, North American whites, and representatives of other nationalities from both hemispheres. These make up a population of 6,800,000. The language most in use is Spanish, but with it one hears everywhere a curious mingling of English and Indian dialects, very puzzling to the stranger. The typical inhabitants of the pampas are the gauchos, a race of half-breed "cowboys," who rear cattle and horses, and catch and tame the wild horses that are found in great numbers on the plains. These dashing fellows spend most of their time on horseback, galloping over the plains, and they have a marvelous skill in lassoing and taming the wildest animals. The gaucho wears a jacket and trousers of coarse cloth or sheepskin, the trousers slashed open from the knees down. He wears huge silver spurs and a silver-inlaid knife thrust in his belt. A big sombrero hat completes his outfit. Their women are attired almost exactly like the men, except that the arms and neck are left bare. Their ranchos or huts are a trellis-

work of brushwood, covered with mud, with a straw roof, and a horse-hide over the opening that serves as a door. The upper classes, being mostly European mercantile and professional men, have the same dress, manners and customs that prevail in their own countries.

THE INTERESTING INDIANS OF THIS REGION.

Between the Indians of North and South America there are a few marked differences. Those of the South are more olive or yellowish in complexion than the red men of the North. The face is heavier, but the nose not so prominent. The Indians of Argentine are a wild and warlike people, with an abundance of horses, which men and women alike ride magnificently. The men wear trousers and a poncho, or square cloth with a hole in the center, through which the head is passed, the folds falling gracefully around the figure. The women's dress is similar, except for the poncho, which is replaced by a cloak. Their houses are mere huts of wicker frames. They are wonderfully skilful with the lasso, and the earliest amusement of little boys is to lasso cats, dogs and chickens, so that by the time they are twelve they have already acquired that skill from which few animals have the slightest chance of escaping. The women and girls make wonderfully beautiful embroidery with beads, and handsome blankets, which fetch a good price.

In the Patagonian region of the Argentine Republic, which extends east of the Andes and south of the Rio Negro to the extreme southern point, just north of the dreary Tierra del Fuego, from which it is separated by the Straits of Magellan, settlements are numerous along the coast, with a mixed population; but the interior is inhabited by Indians of a different type. Vegetation is sparse here, and the land is desolate, especially in winter, when biting winds blow from the Antartic Ocean and the country is wrapped in snow.

Magellan, the navigator, was the first white man to see the natives, and because their shoes of hide made huge prints on the snow the Spaniard named them "Patagonia" ("big feet"). These people wear sufficient clothing for warmth; they are fairly clean, ingenious in making necessary articles; and they treat their women and children well. Hunting and fishing form their means of livelihood, and many of them keep the easily reared sheep and cattle in the regions where the coarse pampas grass grows.

The Indians of Tierra del Fuego are the most miserable of all these people. They live in a land as bleak as the land of the Eskimos, and are even lower in the human standard, being stunted, badly shaped, repulsive in person and manners. Though living in a country where it rains, snows, or hails almost every day, the men wear no clothing, except perhaps an animal's skin thrown over one shoulder, and the women wear a short skirt of sealskin. The snow falls upon them without their seeming to be conscious of any discomfort. Their huts are merely rude shelters of bent boughs. They are marvelously strong and exceedingly skilful with their rude weapons in killing animals for food. They practise cannibalism, and are almost the lowest of mankind. Nevertheless, they express love for their terrible country, and are convinced that it is the finest place one could possibly choose to inhabit. Its inappropriate name—"land of fire"—was given to it by navigators who beheld from the sea numerous fires, kindled by the natives, burning along the shores.

THE FINEST CAPITAL CITY OF SOUTH AMERICA AND ONE OF THE FINEST IN THE WORLD.

A popular tradition regarding the capital of Argentine is that in the days of the explorers a Spanish sailor on landing at that point inhaled a deep breath and explaimed "*Que buenos ayres!*" ("what good

air!"). The exclamation is echoed by visitors of to-day, for the climate of the fine capital city is dry, mild, and healthful. It lies on the right bank of La Plata River, one hundred and fifty miles from its mouth. The broad streets are laid out with great regularity, and are solidly paved with granite. The dwelling-house, are of brick, having only one or two stories, but all have charming gardens, which give a pretty, home-like air to the city.

Among the public buildings of the capital are the handsome palace of the President, a city hall, a large and beautiful cathedral, monasteries and convents; the business streets have fine shops, theaters, and hotels. There is an excellent university, a medical school, several normal schools, and a business college. The public schools number more than two hundred and thirty in which one hundred and twenty thousand scholars are enrolled. A large number of newspapers are published in Buenos Ayres, most of them in Spanish, but some in French, Italian, English, Russian, and other languages. Buenos Ayres has a very large foreign population and probably the streets of no city in the world present such a strange and interesting mixture of different nationalities and population as the capital of Argentine.

The most important feature of the city's business prosperity is its system of docks, which involved the making of five long wet docks, and great basins, which are now spacious enough to admit the largest ocean steamers, thus allowing great exports of the country's chief products to be made. The population of the capital is about 1,000,000. Several lines of railway run from it, one going to Rosario, two hundred and fourteen miles north, the second city in size and importance to Buenos Ayres. Transatlantic steamers sail by the Parana River up to this point, and from its fine wharves convey away its large exports of wheat and wool. Here, too, the climate is very agreeable and the

town of Rosario looks much like a prosperous commercial city of the United States.

Australia.

A WONDERFUL LAND, EXACTLY ON THE "OTHER SIDE" OF THE EARTH.

AUSTRALIA is the largest island in the world—so large that it is sometimes called a continent. It lies in the Eastern Hemisphere, southwest of Asia, between the Indian and Pacific oceans. Its name, Australia, is derived from the word *austral,* meaning "South." To reach it from the United States, one must sail from the California coast in a direct course southwest, landing at Sydney, the capital of New South Wales, one of the seven states into which Australia is divided. This continent covers an area of 2,946,691 square miles, and including the island of Tasmania, now included in the general term "Australia," its total area is 2,962,906 square miles.

Although anything like the exact year in which Australia was first sighted is doubtful, records show that between 1531 and 1542 the Portuguese declared the existence of a land which they styled "Great Java," and which corresponded with the northern parts of what is now the Australian Commonwealth. The most authentic available data indicate that the first European who saw the land was a Portuguese named Manoel Godhino de Eredia, who sighted it in 1601. By common consent, however, it has been conceded, as a starting point for Australian history, that Luis Vaez de Torres, who had been second in command of the De Quiros (Spanish) expedition, saw and sailed close to the Australian coastline in 1606; and that he was navigating in the neighborhood of New Guinea to the east of Cape York Peninsula at about the same time when a Dutch mariner was

similarly engaged to the west of the Peninsula. Yet centuries elapsed before any attempt was made to settle the newly found continent, though meanwhile it was more than once passed and even circumnavigated. After 1619, when the Dutch expedition under de Houtmann anchored off the Abrolhos Reef on Northwest Australia, that part of the continent was repeatedly visited during the former half of the seventeenth century, and well verified history shows that in 1656 a Dutch ship was wrecked in the vicinity of the Abrolhos Group—fragments of the cargo are even now washed up occasionally by the sea or found in the guano deposits. Toward the end of 1642 Abel Jansen Tasman, a Dutch navigator, discovered and landed on Tasmania, and named it Van Diemen's Land, a title which it continued to bear until 1854. In 1688, William Dampier, a freebooter, was the first Englishman to set foot on Australia—at King Sound on the northwest coast. This same Dampier on a subsequent voyage took Alexander Selkirk (Defoe's "Robinson Crusoë") off the island of Juan Fernandez, on which the man had disembarked some time before. Still, curiously enough, Australia was not annexed on behalf of any nation until the last third of the eighteenth century. In 1768 Lieut. James Cook set out from England in a crazy ship, the *Endeavour,* in charge of an expedition appointed to observe at Tahiti the transit of Venus. Steering thence westward, he made an examination of New Zealand, came, on April 19, 1770, upon the coast of Australia, and anchored in Botany Bay. Later he proceeded northerly along the coast; and, after the *Endeavour* had, in June, struck upon a coral reef and well-nigh foundered near to the present Queensland port of Cairns, he continued his journey until, on August 21, 1770, he hoisted the colors of England on the North Australian peninsula of Cape York, and thus formally took possession of the whole eastern part of Australia.

But settlers did not follow closely upon the heels of the navigators, and eighteen years had passed before, on January 18, 1788, a British convict expedition with one thousand thirty persons, of whom seven hundred and fifty were under penal servitude and banishment, reached Botany Bay. On January 26 (now celebrated as Australian Foundation Day) the expedition landed, displayed its national colors with due pomp and circumstance, and so inaugurated European settlement in the "Great Land of the Southern Cross," which was, however, even thus late imperfectly known even in outline, and was comprehended under the general title of New South Wales, now applied to one of the territorially smallest states of Australia. With the occupation of the country further exploration by land and sea proceeded apace. In 1798 Doctor Bass and Captain Flinders (who afterwards achieved immortal renown as a great navigator in association with Sir John Franklin, the Arctic hero) demonstrated by sailing round Tasmania that that country was veritably an island, and not a portion of the Australian Continent, as had been supposed. In 1802, having been provided by the British Admiralty with a scarcely seaworthy vessel, the *Investigator,* Captain Flinders surveyed the larger part of the southern coast of Australia, from west to east, and forestalled a French expedition which had been sent out under Captain Baudin in the ship *Le Geographe,* for purposes similar to those Flinders had in view. In 1788 the first settlement of the section known as New South Wales began, Botany Bay following as a colony to which convicts were transported from England. Western Australia, the largest of the Australian states, was made into a division in 1829, Southern Australia in 1834, Victoria in 1851, and Queensland in 1859.

From time to time explorers have penetrated the wild interior, inhabited by savages, and some never

have returned. In 1901 the colonies were united into a federation, under a Governor-general appointed by the King of England; with a Senate and a House of Representatives, elected by the people, and with a Constitution resembling that of the United States.

IN AUSTRALIA IT SNOWS IN JULY!

The climate of Australia is generally warm, dry, and healthful, with this difference from other parts of the world that January and February are the hottest months of summer, and July is the coldest of winter. There is only one large river, the Murray, more than a thousand miles long; and the highest point on the continent is Mount Kosciusko, seven thousand three hundred and eight feet high.

THE OLDEST AND STRANGEST ANIMALS IN THE WORLD.

This strange country, rich in gold, precious stones, and other valuable minerals, but poor in water, produces some animals that are found nowhere else in the world, called masupials—that is, animals the female of which is furnished with a furry pouch in the under part of the body, in which her little ones nestle for warmth or protection. The best known of this peculiarly Australian family is the kangaroo, whose flesh is eaten and whose skin is used by the Australians. Another strange animal found only in this country is the porcupine ant-eater; but the strangest of all is a creature called the duckbill, apparently a link between bird and beast. It has a body like a mole, a long bill like a duck's, as well as web feet, and a thick, furry tail. It swims in deep water, and can climb a tree like a squirrel; it lays eggs like a fowl, and nurses its young like a cat. It is regarded as the strangest animal in the world.

None of the domestic animals common in the rest of the world is native of Australia, but they have been imported there and have thriven well, especially

sheep. Australia is one of the greatest of sheep-rearing countries now, and exports enormous quantities of wool every year.

A great variety of the most beautiful birds may be seen here, especially in that part of the country which lies in the tropics.

THE "BUSHMEN"—THE SAVAGE NATIVES OF AUSTRALIA.

Native Australians still in their primitive condition of savagery are found only in the "bush," or wild, unsettled interior; those that have remained near the settlements of white men have become partly civilized. They are black, yet have not the features of the negro. They are almost the lowest of mankind in intellect and character, thievish, treacherous, greedy, dirty, and cruel to a degree of which it is almost impossible to believe the human race capable. The men wear a sort of circular mat, made of bulrushes, tied round the waist, and cloaks made of fur or of woven grasses. The women wear petticoats of leaves; the children enjoy perfect freedom in only their brown or black skins.

There is hardly anything that these wild natives will not eat—tadpoles, snakes, moths, and all sorts of insects are devoured. Wild honey is a great delicacy, and in order to find a store of it a honey bee is caught, its tail is dipped in gum, to which some white substance is stuck; then the marked bee is released, and a lively chase follows, until the honey-maker is traced home to the hidden treasure.

These savages treat their women and children with barbarous cruelty, and their conduct in war is too terrible to describe. Their favorite weapon is a thick club called a *waddy,* and it is a bushman's constant companion. With it he attacks men and animals, and chastises his wife and children. He uses bow and arrow in hunting, too, but the most celebrated of Australian weapons is the bomerang, a hard, flattened curved piece of wood, which, when hurled in a pe-

culiar manner, whirls through the air with tremendous force, strikes the object aimed at, and rebounds almost to the thrower's feet. It has been difficult, of course, to civilize such a savage race, and although the state governments have enacted laws for their protection and welfare they are fast dying out and will eventually become extinct.

THE DISCOVERY OF GOLD AND ITS MAGIC INFLUENCE.

The discovery of the rich pasturage in Australia attracted sheep-farmers in great numbers, but in 1851 a tremendous impetus was given to emigration to its shores by the discovery of gold at Ballarat, less than a hundred miles from Melbourne, the capital of Victoria, the settlement of which had begun in 1838 and continued with steady and successful progress.

The grand discovery changed, as by a magician's wand, the whole of civilized life in Australia; everyone's blood went up to fever heat and the chief word on all men's lips was "gold." The laborer left his toil, the mechanic his bench, the clerk resigned his place, the merchant abandoned his desk, and the lawyer the courts. Melbourne was almost deserted by the male population. Then came crowds following crowds from across the seas, as fast as ships could bring them—men of every shade of character, and many with no character at all. Business came to a temporary standstill, and social chaos and dissipation prevailed. Yet this madness brought about two great benefits—it relieved many cities of the Western Hemisphere of a surplus population, and drew strong young men to a new, rich country, to which otherwise they never would have come, and which needed them greatly. Ten thousand persons landed at Melbourne in one week. For three years the authorities had difficulty in preserving order and protecting life; but at last the excitement subsided and Victoria settled down into one of the most law-abiding states in the world.

SOME OF AUSTRALIA'S CHIEF CITIES.

Melbourne, with its sixteen suburban towns and 503,000 inhabitants, forming one immense metropolis, is situated on the Yarra-Yarra River, a stream that admits small steamers into the heart of the city. Its great entrance, however, is approached through the bay of Port Philip, at a distance of nine miles, from which a railway runs to the city. Melbourne is named after Lord Melbourne, England's prime minister at the time the settlement was founded. It is laid out in an oblong square, with eight principal streets crossing one another at right angles. The finest of these is Bourke Street, a handsome, crowded thoroughfare, with splendid hotels, shops, and theaters. These broad streets, with their solid stone buildings, give an air of grandeur to the city. In them one sees a great variety of people, also an air of extravagance and love of display; but this indicates a source of wealth in the background, and the large fortunes that are still to be obtained in the colony of Victoria.

The House of Parliament, in Bourke Street, is a magnificent building, as is also Government House, where the representative of King George V is lodged in palatial splendor.

All children between six and fourteen are compelled to attend school. The Melbourne University was opened in 1855, splendidly endowed, and with instructors of the highest grade. Its degrees entitle graduates to the same rank as if obtained at any university in England. A museum connected with it displays stuffed specimens of some of the remarkable animals found nowhere else in the world. There is one really awful kangaroo eight feet high, whose pouch could contain several persons.

There are two cathedrals—one Church-of-England and one Roman Catholic. Other denominations also have handsome churches.

A wonderful variety of fruits and vegetables is seen every Wednesday and Saturday in Melbourne, when the great markets are open. Besides these, everything that people use appears to be on sale. To hear a butcher crying out for sale half a sheep for an English shilling, shows how plentiful is the supply of this meat. What would the poor of any great American city think of being able to buy half a sheep for twenty-five cents?

Melbourne has no parks, but in the towns that form its suburbs there are many gardens, parks and reserves, the Botanical Gardens, south of the Yarra, displaying trees, plants, and flowers from almost every clime.

The city is supplied with water from a great artificial lake, twenty miles away, situated at the base of hills. It seems as if it were formed by nature for the purpose, being enclosed by elevations north, east, and west, and only requiring to be dammed on the south to form a wonderful reservoir. The artificial embankment is 3,159 feet long and thirty-one feet high. By thus damming up the water flowing from the hills, the valley has been transformed into a lake holding six billion gallons.

The oldest city in Australia is Sydney, the capital of New South Wales, its chief port and railway center. Its streets are crooked and steep, giving an old-fashioned appearance, unique in this new country, and affording charming views of the surrounding water. Sydney's beginning was humble, as it was founded by Captain Philip in 1788, as a penal station for such British convicts as were not quite bad enough to hang, but too dangerous to remain in England. By degrees tradesmen of different kinds came to live among the convicts; good buildings were erected; manufacturing began; the great sheep and cattle-raising industries helped to swell the respectable population, until it became a great city, with almost 500,000 population.

It contains a university that is the finest building in Australia, and a branch of the Royal British Mint.

On both sides of the river Torrens, eight miles from its entrance into the mouth of the Gulf of St. Vincent, lies the city of Adelaide, capital of South Australia, named after Queen Adelaide, consort of William IV of England. It has a population of 175,000, and is the center of the commerce of the colony. While it has not the picturesqueness nor the romance of Melbourne and Sydney, its great exports of minerals, grain, and wool make it one of the busiest places on the continent. It was founded in 1836.

THE ISLAND OF TASMANIA.

If you will look at any geography issued in the first half of the nineteenth century, you will see a good-sized island south of Australia, separated from it by Bass Strait, called Van Diemen's Land, after the governor of the Dutch Indies in 1642. It was discovered by another Dutchman, named Tasman, and for a time was left to its natives; but in 1803 a colony of convicts was moved there, and the next year a penal colony was established at Hobart. All the whites had trouble with the fierce natives, and those that were not convicts were in danger from the escaping felons that took to the "bush" and became brigands. The island is now a part of the Australian federation, and convict transportation there ceased in 1853, and the name of the island was changed to Tasmania. It is the smallest of the Australian colonies, and its temperature is the pleasantest. Gold is not one of the great mineral products, but tin is produced to a large extent. Sheep in vast numbers are reared here.

Hobart, the capital, is delightfully situated on the Derwent River and at the foot of Wellington Mountain; it has handsome streets and buildings, fine schools and libraries, and is a lively business center. Its old convict taint has been entirely wiped out and

now, with the cities in Australia proper, it is a proof of what Anglo-Saxon energy can achieve in far-off lands.

Australia as a whole is today a happy, prosperous and contented people. Probably no people in the world enjoy more of the comforts and pleasures of life, and none have shown more fortitude and courage in building a nation. The Australians have inscribed the words "Advance, Australia!" on their national escutcheon; and the record of the past gives promises of a glorious fulfilment of these words.

Austria-Hungary.

HOW IT CAME ABOUT THAT AUSTRIA AND HUNGARY UNITED.

FROM the time of Charlemagne, who reigned from 768 to 814, the territory lying south of the Danube river was a margraviate, or "border country," under the rule of a margrave ("keeper of the border") until 1156, when it was raised to a duchy; and later it became an archduchy. By 1438 the rulers of this territory had annexed other provinces north of the Danube, besides acquiring the thrones of Bohemia and Hungary, and the archduchy became an empire, under Albert II. His son married the daughter of Charles the Bold and thus acquired the Netherlands. In time he transferred these acquisitions to his son Philip the Fair. Philip married the Princess Joanna, daughter of the well-beloved monarchs Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, and their son, the celebrated Charles V, inherited not only Austria and the Netherlands as an absolute monarchy, but also the vast possessions of Spain, which later were lost.

The history of Austria's struggles with the old German Confederation, her wars with her arch-enemy, Napoleon, who later was audacious enough to woo and

win her royal princess for a bride, and her conflicts with the fiery Hungarians, is a story of thrilling interest, though too long to enter upon here; it is enough to say that since 1867 the throne of Austria has represented an independent monarchy, though no longer an absolute one, including the whole of Hungary, and has a population, in the twentieth century, of almost 17,000,000. It is the largest country of Europe except Russia, covering an area of 241,333 square miles.

MANY DIFFERENT LANGUAGES SPOKEN.

This area contains more different peoples, speaking different languages, than are found anywhere else under one government. Many persons think that the people and language are mostly German. This is true of the western provinces and of Vienna, the capital; but in the north a different tongue is used; near the Russian border Polish is spoken, and toward Italy the people speak Italian. Then there are the widely-spoken Czechs and Slav tongues, used by many thousands; while in Hungary the Magyar is the prevailing speech, although many dialects of mingled people are heard.

A GREAT STANDING ARMY.

The Australian Emperor rules over all this great country, though Hungary has its own capital, the city of Budapest, where its own Congress assembles and regulates Hungarian affairs. For national defense and in relation to other nations, the two countries act as one.

Because of its openness to attack from the surrounding countries, Austria-Hungary is compelled to maintain a great standing army and all young men are obliged to become soldiers for several years as soon as they leave school. With its regular army and its reserves, Austria could call out four million soldiers if war were declared.

A VARIED CLIMATE AND A FERTILE LAND.

Many varieties of scenery and of climate are found in the united countries. If one likes mountains he may live in the southwestern part, where the eastern Alps extend for a long distance in Tyrol, or in the northeastern section, where the Carpathians extend in the form of a bow for six hundred miles. Should he prefer the valley region, he will find the most delightful fertile lands all along the Danube; and if he needs to be near medicinal mineral springs, he will find in Austria a greater number of these than anywhere else—Carlsbad, Marienbad, Seidlitz, and many others less celebrated. For those that like the water, there is the coast of the Adriatic, from Carniola to Bosnia.

In the southern region, Indian corn, grapes, and olives are grown, and tropical flowers bloom; in the middle part, wheat and oats are the great products; these, too, are cultivated in the cold northern provinces. Everywhere agriculture is the chief source of wealth, though the rearing of fine horses is in Transylvania an important industry. The great productiveness of Austrian soil is owing to the increasing care and preservation of her vast forests, which mostly belong to the State—a care which other countries would do well to imitate.

Large herds of horses, cattle, sheep, and pigs are found throughout Austria-Hungary. Unlike most of the other European countries, the united lands produce enough food for all their own people.

THE HISTORIC AND ROMANTIC DANUBE.

Next to the Volga River in Russia, the "beautiful blue Danube" of Austria is the largest river of Europe, eight hundred and twenty miles long, and navigable by the largest vessels. Its canals, connecting it with the Rhine and the Elbe, form important waterways for business. Before Columbus discovered

America the Danube was the great trade route from Asia to Europe. No one dared to brave the unknown sea to go around the Cape of Good Hope as far as China or India; so Oriental goods were brought by camel-train to the Mediterranean ports of Asia and shipped either to Venice or to Constantinople, whence they were taken across the Black Sea to the mouth of the Danube, and so were brought up the great river into the heart of Europe. By the same routes European goods were sent to the Orient.

The romantic Danube was one of the chief routes of the famous Crusaders when they set out for Jerusalem to wrest the tomb of Christ from the possession of infidel Turks. Many were the wild and dangerous adventures they encountered as they passed along its winding waters to the Black Sea. On its shores were gloomy castles, inhabited by the lawless "robber barons" of the Middle Ages, who sometimes seized upon these gallant knights and held them for ransom.

In these peaceful days of ours the Danube is no longer the chief route to Asia, but it is the great artery of the Austro-Hungarian life. Its course runs through rich countries with a great population. Towns and cities flourish upon its banks, and commercial products of all kinds are carried over its waters.

SOME INTERESTING TOWNS.

In many of the towns, Germans and Czechs (Bohemians), Magyars, Wallachs, and Saxons live for generations near one another, yet always retain unchanged their own language, religion, customs, and dress.

Gratz, the capital of the province of Styria, is a city typical of the aristocracy of Austria, the most exclusive and haughty in Europe. It is a beautiful town situated on both sides of the river, and the home of some of the most wealthy and influential nobles as

well as one of the most important intellectual centers in the empire.

Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is exactly the reverse in its people and general aspect. It is inhabited chiefly by Bohemians and Jews, and the feud between them is never-ending The city is the center for the manufacture of the exquisite Bohemian glass, admired the world over.

Ragusa, which was seized by Napoleon and converted from a little republic into an Austrian town, is a beautiful old city surrounded by walls, towers, and bastions, just as it was when it welcomed Richard Cœur de Lion when that royal Crusader was pursuing his adventures. It was the glory of Ragusa for centuries that she never would give up a fugitive, and many a noble and even royal person flew to her hospitable arms for shelter.

A BRAVE AND PICTURESQUE PEOPLE.

The Austrian middle classes are social, lively and fond of pleasure, though keen and thrifty in business. Husbands and wives unite their efforts in many occupations, the wife sharing work, profits and planning in all sorts of enterprises. Among the higher classes the women are as much devoted to riding, hunting, and fencing as the men, and live quite as amusing a life in the way of pastime and entertainment.

Hungary, which is fifteen times as large as the State of Massachusetts, is one of the richest countries in Europe. As one enters it from the north he finds it very hilly, but soon finds himself descending upon the great plains that lie below. The city of Presburg is famous in the history of Hungary. All her kings were crowned here, and in its ruined castle on the hill her Parliament sat. Seventeen different peoples live in Hungary, but the ruling race is the Magyar, a people springing from a mingling of Siberians and Turks, who centuries ago made their way

up the Danube and settled in this great tract of country which they call their own. They are a brave and patriotic people, and have helped, more than any other, to keep the Orientals of many countries from overrunning Europe. The upper classes are rich and well educated. They dress most picturesquely, the men wearing an embroidered satin jacket, tight white breeches, high boots, a gold belt, and a fur cap. Among the peasantry also the dress is striking, the women sporting high boots like the men, and all wearing many bright colors.

Of this center of Hungarian life, Budapest is the capital, the story of which is told in the volume under the Great Cities.

Belgium.

FEW countries in Europe are better worth visiting than the compact, densely populated, and busy little kingdom of Belgium, only 165 miles long and 120 miles wide, and covering 11,000 square miles. Its 6,000,000 inhabitants belong to two different nationalities, the Flemish (German) and the Walloon (French), each division occupying its own half of the territory and speaking its own language, that of the former being Dutch, that of the latter a French dialect.

HOW BELGIUM GREW.

In the time of the ancient Roman rule Belgium formed part of Gaul, and later it was a possession of the Franks; in 1555 it passed under the rule of Spain, but in 1831, after centuries of succeeding Spanish, Austrian, French, and Dutch domination, Belgium revolted against foreign rule and established her own monarchy, under Leopold I, and she has maintained that station among nations ever since. In 1884-85 she extended her possessions by annexing the vast tract

in Africa known as the Congo Free State, from which she derives enormous wealth in india-rubber, oil, gums, coffee, and other tropical products.

THE MODEL FARMERS OF EUROPE.

Almost all the land in Belgium is well fitted for cultivation, and the Belgians of the country districts have so well availed themselves of their natural advantage that they have been long regarded as the model farmers of Europe. In the Walloon section, the city of Liege is the center of vast coal and iron industries, from which this fortunate country derives a great part of her wealth. The coal-fields cover an area of 500 square miles, and the production of coal amounts to 5,000,000 tons a year. Other industries are also in a flourishing condition, and all the world knows of the fine linens, laces, and cloths manufactured in different parts of Belgium.

SOME OLD BELGIUM CITIES.

A convenient route from England to Belgium is by way of Dover to Calais on the French coast, thence a few miles north to Ostend, on the North Sea. No watering-place in the world is better known or more interesting than this bright and fashionable resort. Its attractions comprise those of Brighton in England, Trouville in France, and Newport in the United States; but besides these the great variety in the types of its visitors makes it a kaleidoscope-show of the nations of the world, representatives of which may be seen every evening at the Kursaal, a handsome building used as a concert-hall and ball-room, reading-room and restaurant; and every day strolling on the Digue, a stone dyke a mile long and twenty-five feet high.

Half an hour by rail from Ostend brings the traveler to Bruges. Other towns in Belgium have awakened and joined the march of the world's progress, but Bruges remains ever the same, with Old-World

associations clinging to her ancient buildings. The town was once a great manufacturing center, but long ago quarrels between her rulers and the manufacturers led to the downfall of prosperity. Yet their glory has not departed from her celebrated shrines. The cathedral, of the twelfth century, is a beautiful building, and the church of Notre Dame is full of romantic associations, with its superb bronze and marble statues of former sovereigns. The Hospital of St. John is famous for its shrine to St. Ursula, within which are deposited some of the bones of that saint whose history, in connection with the eleven thousand British maidens who are said to have been martyred with her, is well known. On the outside of the shrine the events of the saint's life have been depicted by Hans Memling, one of the group of eminent Flemish painters. In the center of the city stands the building used as a market-house and a town-hall. Its wonderful tower, 350 feet high, has a belfry in which hangs a chime of bells celebrated by the poet Longfellow in his lines:

> "Low and loud, sweetly blended,
> Low at times and loud at times,
> Changing like a poet's rymes."

When we come to Ghent we are on the scene of many a desperate fight in the Middle Ages, though now it is one of the most peaceful and prosperous of towns, with numerous canals traversing it in every direction, giving it an appearance that suggests a prosaic Venice. Its streets are lively and picturesque, with steep, many-windowed red roofs to the houses. Near the Ghent cathedral stands its tall belfry, celebrated in song and story for its "great bell Roland," which in the Middle Ages was rung as a summons to arms or to give alarm of fire.

The chief port of Belgium is the very ancient city of Antwerp, on the Scheldt river, about fifty miles from the sea, one of the most stirring towns in all the busy land. There we approach it by water, the first object

seen is the splendid spire of its cathedral of Notre Dame, begun in 1422, which contains the most magnificent set of chimes in the world, composed of ninety-nine bells, the smallest of which is like a tea-bell and the largest weighs eight tons. The carving of the spire, 402 feet high, looks like delicate lace-work. Within the building is the famous painting of Christ's "Descent from the Cross," by Peter Paul Rubens. Besides Rubens, another great artist lived in Antwerp, Antoon Van Dyck, the celebrated portrait-painter.

BRUSSELS, THE CAPITAL CITY.

Brussels, the capital, is said to have been founded in the seventh century, on an island in the river Senne, and its assemblage of huts was called the *broeksles,* (marsh dwellings), which account for its present name. Its growth was slow until after the twelfth century; when the new monarchy was formed it became the seat of government and the royal residence.

The capital contains many splendid buildings. The most beautiful is the Municipal Senate-house, built in 1402, which stands in a fine old mediæval square where in 1568 the Counts Egmont and Horn died as martyrs to the cause of liberty, by order of the cruel Spanish Duke of Alva.

In the great market may be seen all classes of people, in many curious Flemish costumes, also all sorts of vegetables, the variety of which would be surprising if we did not remember that Belgium contains some of the most fertile soil in Europe. Much of the prosperity and happiness of the people is due to the subdivision of the land among numerous owners, all of whom work very hard to do their best with their little farms, knowing that they never need fear a raising of rent or a sudden ejection.

The Boulevard Centrale is a magnificent modern street, with handsome shops, cafés, hotels, and theaters.

The city has several palaces. The King has one overlooking the Park, and another in the suburb of Laeken. The former palace of the Prince of Orange is now the Museum of the Royal Academy of Letters, Arts, and Science.

Of the many stately monuments in Brussels, of those men who have added to her glory, the finest is that of Godfrey de Bouillon, hero of the first crusade to Jerusalem to wrest the Holy Sepulchre from the hands of infidels.

THE BATTLEFIELD OF WATERLOO.

In the suburbs of Brussels are many handsome villas, worthy of a visit. Few persons ever go to the capital without making a pilgrimage to the famous battlefield of Waterloo. The surroundings are not particularly picturesque, and when one has made the ascent of the Lion Mound, seen the relics in the Museum, and gone over the farm lands on which raged the great battle that completed the downfall of Napoleon, he has seen all there is to see. The Lion's Mound is a curious structure erected by the Belgians in memory of their countrymen who took part in the battle against Napoleon's forces, but who turned and ran away early in the fight. Nevertheless, this monument was set up to commemorate their share in the contest, and it is crowned with a stone lion, grinning defiantly toward the French boundary—not the most appropriate animal they could have chosen to represent the Belgian contingent.

The field still keeps its outlines. At the left is Planchenoit, where Wellington watched to see the smoke of the Prussian guns. Opposite is the slope down which D'Erlon's troops marched to the attack on LaHaye Sainte; and at our feet, on the left, as we stand on the summit of the monument, is the ground over which the Life Guards and Enniskillens, and Scots Greys galloped in their great charge. To the right is

Hougomont, the orchard walls still pierced with loop-holes made by the Guards. Victors and vanquished passed away long ago; and since the Old Guard broke on the slopes of Mont St. Jean, British and French never have met on the field of battle.

United States of Brazil.

A GREAT SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLIC.

NOT many works of fiction have been written with the scene laid in Brazil, yet her history is one of romantic interest, and her modern aspect full of allurement to the adventurous that seek her shores, where are

> "Larger constellations burning, mellow moons and happy skies,
> Breadths of tropic shade, and palms in cluster, knots of paradise;
> Droops the heavy-blossom'd bower, hangs the heavy-fruited tree,
> Summer isles of Eden lying in dark purple spheres of sea."

One of the companions of Columbus in that first glorious voyage of 1492, which made known to the Old World the existence of the New, was Vincente Yanez Pinzon, a young man commanding one of the frail vessels of that expedition. In January, 1500, Pinzon was sailing his own ship in Atlantic waters and beheld on his right a green promontory extending into the sea. He called it Cape Consolation; it is now Cape St. Augustine, just south of the city of Pernambuco. Pinzon did not take possession of the land, however, and, strangely enough, just ninety days later, Pedro Alvares Cabeal, a Portuguese navigator, accidentally discovered the same coast farther south. At first he thought it was a large island off the coast of Africa; but soon seeing that he had made a much greater discovery, he landed on the new continent and took possession of the soil in the name of his king, Don Emanuel of Portugal, setting up a cross and calling his discovery Terro da Vera Cruz ("Land of the

True Cross"). Later the king changed this name to Brazil, from the red wood which the country produces.

Some exploration followed this discovery, but Portugal was so much occupied with her Indian conquests that Brazil was long neglected. The first colony, Sao Cicente, was formed in 1532, and the coast was divided into sections, which were granted to distinguished Portuguese on condition that they would settle them. In time these became provinces, and they now form part of the present United States of Brazil. The town of Bahia was founded in 1549 and became the capital. Other nations tried to enter the rich and beautiful new country, but were driven out by the Portuguese.

From 1640 Brazil was governed by viceroys of Portugal, and in 1762 the capital was changed to Rio de Janeiro. In 1698 gold was discovered, and in 1728 the first Brazilian diamonds were unearthed; and after each discovery great numbers of people entered the country. Armed expeditions in the mad hunt for gold and diamonds penetrated the interior and founded towns.

When Napoleon took a fancy to add Portugal to his possessions in 1808, the Portuguese sovereign, Don John, was driven out; he sailed for Brazil, accompanied by his family, his court and retinue, and a large body of emigrants. He improved the condition of the country greatly, and remained there till Napoleon's downfall, when he raised Brazil to a Kingdom and returned to Portugal, leaving his son Pedro to act as regent. Events developed that finally separated Brazil from Portugal, but Pedro was created Emperor of the great country, a station that he held until he was forced to abdicate, leaving his little son, Pedro emperor in his stead, under a regent. The boy was declared of age at fifteen, and ascended the throne, which he held until 1889, when, by a remarkable revolution, without war or bloodshed, the empire was abolished and a republic of twenty-one States—

the United States of Brazil—was proclaimed, which has held sway ever since, with a president, congress, legislature, and constitution similar to the institutions and offices of the United States of America.

It seems as if Providence has designed this land for the benefit of man. Every desirable thing is here—cool breezes, mountains, high plateaus, vast rivers, refreshing rains, rich vegetation and a fertile soil, and it seems to be a land arranged by Nature for the support of millions.

A WONDERFUL LAND.

This wonderful country, covering an area of 3,209,878 square miles, almost of the same size as the whole of the United States, has one of the most delightful climates in the world in a large part of its domain. It is warm and healthful, with plentiful rain, fresh breezes, and cool nights even in the warmest weather. Its mountains are mostly in the eastern and southeastern region, and are not of great height. The river system of Brazil, however, is unequaled in the world for the number and size of its streams, the surface of the whole northwestern portion being interlaced with rivers of every length and width, with the great Amazon as the main artery of all. The Amazon is the largest though not the longest river in the world. It is eight hundred miles long, and on the vast plains extending from its banks vegetation is rich and varied. Some of the most beautiful of cabinet woods grow in the thick tropical forests—the famous redwood, rosewood, and mahogany trees being the most valuable. Other useful trees are the rubber and palm, the cacao, or chocolate tree, besides a wide variety seldom seen in the north.

The greatest wealth-producing crop is coffee, which is raised in many States, cultivated by negroes, who are free to-day, although slavery was abolished in Brazil only as recently as 1888. Brazil raises more

coffee than any other country, and it constitutes more than half her exports. Other tropical products are sugar, rice, lemons, oranges, and figs.

The forests swarm with wild animals, including the puma, the jaguar, monkeys, and the armadillo. Birds of dazzling plumage fill the woods with songs and cries. Other tropical creatures not so beautiful are found in these woods—boa constrictors, alligators, and a terrible snake called the jarraraca, whose bite is fatal.

Horned cattle and horses are the chief domestic animals. The number of cattle is immense, covering the vast plains of the interior; many of them are wild.

The varied population of the twenty-one States consist of people of Portuguese blood, of negroes, of native Indians similar to those of the Argentine Republic, and of people of mixed races, besides a few other Europeans and some North Americans. The total population of the country is 9,914,646. In every town elementary free schools are established; and although there are no universities, there are government colleges of law and medicine; while in all large towns there are institutions called collegios, where Latin, Greek, French, and the higher branches of education are taught.

Every year this vast and beautiful country is becoming more developed, yet a longer time will elapse before it occupies an equal position with that of its sister republic of the North. No better field can be found for the exercise of a young man's energy in building up a country; no more healthful place in which to enjoy the beauties of nature.

THE CAPITAL CITY.

The capital city, Rio de Janeiro, has the most magnificent harbor in the world. It has an entrance about a mile wide, between high rocks; within, it expands into a broad sheet with many bays, stretching inland

for seventeen miles. Great ships are loaded at the fine wharves, carrying away annually four hundred million pounds of coffee. The city occupies flat land and hills, partly surrounding a group of wooded mountains. The older streets are narrow and crooked; the newer are wide and have handsome houses and shops. All are well lighted with gas and electricity. The finest residences, surrounded by wonderful tropical gardens, are in the outskirts and on the hills, where the magnificence of the scenery is the admiration of every visitor.

The handsomest church is the Candelaria; the old monasteries have been turned into public buildings, and have been supplemented by the national printing-office, the mint, and the Department of Agriculture. The Misericordia Hospital is said to be the largest and most richly endowed in the world. The old imperial palace has been changed to a museum, with a beautiful park surrounding it.

The old city houses are not very attractive, for the carriage-house and stable occupy the ground floor. while the drawing room, dining-room, and kitchen are in the second story. To enter the dwelling one first goes in at the wide doorway of the carriage-house, which at night is shut with iron bars of a prison-like thickness. The walls of the house are of stone and as thick as the walls of a fortress. There is no knocker, or bell; the visitor simply stands at the foot of the stairs within and claps his hands, when a servant appears at the top and invites the caller to ascend.

THE PEOPLE AND THEIR WAYS.

Almost all Brazilian babies (that is, Portugese) are nursed by negro servants, and as soon as possible they are sent to school. They are affectionate and intelligent, but high-tempered and indolent. Instrumental music, singing and dancing are accomplishments of almost every young girl, and of many youths, for

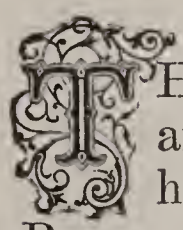
music is a passion with them. The opera is maintained by the government, and the best musicians go to Rio de Janeiro.

The Brazilians are very polite and graceful, and the cultivation of young people's manners is a subject of great care. At thirteen or fourteen a girl is considered to have sufficient education, and by the time she is sixteen she is usually the bride of some man who has been selected for her by her parents.

A boy's education is of much more importance. He matures very young, and by the time he is twelve he is wearing a top hat like a man's and adult style in clothing, and usually carries a cane. After this he never runs and jumps, throws stones, or plays out-of-door games, but goes in great dignity to the *collegios,* where he is expected to master the whole course of study in a wonderfully short time, for he must serve three years in the army before he is free to follow a chosen career.

The Dominion of Canada.

THE GOLDEN QUEST.



THE history of New France reads like a romance, and the chapter taking perhaps the strongest hold of our imagination has for hero a lad of Brouage named Samuel. We see him a daring young dreamer playing on the sands of his seaport birthplace, listening to the sailors' tales of one Jacques Cartier, and of a great lone land lying far away. Next we see him grown to manhood, signing himself in full Samuel de Champlain, still the daring dreamer. Then we see him in his thirty-sixth year as he looks in the portrait that Ducornet has given us of him—strong-bodied, strong-featured, with heavy, dark hair, high brow, and eyes of power—an officer in the League, a captain of the Royal Marines, a favorite of Henri of

Navarre, in the heyday of his life turning his back on court and camp and setting forth upon the Golden Quest by the highway of the sea.

This Golden Quest was the finding of a new route to India. The belief prevailed that the path to the east lay through the west, and Spain, Holland, Portugal, France, England, hungry to share in the gorgeous traffic of the Orient, continued to send their most daring navigators in search of this passage. It was the lure that thrice drew Champlain. His mission from church and state was to solve the mystery of the wilderness, to plant the Catholic faith and the flag of France amid the solitudes; but above and beyond this was a desire to reach the isles of spice, the riches of Cathay, the gold, the silk, the gems of Cipango and Ceylon, by a shorter route than the tedious one by way of the Mediterranean Sea and the caravan trains of Persia.

The voyages of De Roberval, Poutrincourt, De Monts, and other pioneers, while establishing trade-relations with the Indians, and building posts, had done little for the new country. Early in the sixteenth century the State and Church awoke to the importance of the matter. The first said, "We shall colonize," the second, "We *must* convert." The Marquis de la Roche had just made a signal failure of a scheme to form a colony of convicts, for, when he left forty of these poor wretches on Sable Island, off the coast of Nova Scotia, while he explored farther, a tempest swept him into the sea, swept away his courage, swept him back to France, where an ancient enemy had him imprisoned. The Norman pilot, despatched, after a delay of five years, to rescue the marooned convicts, found them turned into veritable wild men, half starved, and clothed with the skins of beasts.

On the ruins of de la Roche's scheme Chaplain founded his enterprise, and, in company with Pontgravé sailed from France with two small vessels in

the spring of 1608. On a June morning he came to Tadousac, set about with mountains between whose ribs of rock the mighty Saguenay rolled its waters from the north. He found, besides the palisade built by Chauvin eight years before, a village of Montagnais (of the Algonquin tribe) gathering in the only harvest the wilderness had to yield—skin of moose, caribou, bear; fur of beaver, marten, otter, lynx and fox. He found, too, the Basque fisherman carrying on a prohibited trade with the Indians. Having routed the Basques, he annexed the Montagnais to his train, and made them intermediate traders between himself and the tribes ranging all the way to Hudson's Bay. The State had impressed upon him the importance of making the fur-trade cover the cost of the expedition; but, leaving Pontgravé to look after the business part of the venture, he sailed up the St. Lawrence. To the south lay wooded hills and tenantless shores. Today these are alive with villages—La Chenaie, Granville, St. Roche, St. Jean, Vincelot, Berthier—but on the north the wilderness still preserves its rugged silence as it did when Champlain saw it from the deck of the *Honfleur*.

THE BUILDING OF QUEBEC.

Next we have the ring of axes clearing the site for Canada's capital, on ground now occupied by the Old Town market. Champlain has left us a pencil sketch of Quebec, the fortress that he built, watched over, guarded from foes within and without, fought for, bled for, and where finally he laid himself down for the rest so nobly earned. He was no artist. The crude sketch shows a wooden wall loopholed for musketry, enclosing three buildings, with a courtyard and a tall dove-cote like a belfry. Outside of this on a moat are three cannons fronting the river. While he was busy with the building, making ready for the host of pioneer priests, soldiers, peasants, and traders, his pilot Tetu revealed to him Duval's plot to kill him and

deliver Quebec into the hands of the unlicensed fur-traders and Spanish free-booters who alike hated Champlain's rigid guardianship of the rights of New France and of his company. He hanged Duval, sent four ringleaders in chains to France, and pardoned the others.

Champlain's Indian allies called him "the man with the iron breast;" the Iroquois, out of a wholesome dread of the death-dealing arquebus that he carried, gave him the title of "smoke devil." Terror of the latter tribe lay like a scourge upon the land. Champlain, seeing that he could not hope to penetrate the wilderness or successfully carry on exploration while his allies hugged the Fort for security, joined fortunes with the Hurons and Algonquins, and boldly took the initiative. In the spring of 1609, with about sixty Frenchmen and Indians, he invaded the Iroquois country and came upon a war party of two hundred. With yells of scorn the Iroquois rushed forward brandishing their shields of wood and hide and wearing an armor of twigs interlaced with fiber. Champlain advanced in front of his red warriors and stood revealed. The warlike apparition struck them mute. "I looked at them," says Champlain in his records, "and they looked at me. As they lifted their arrows to their bows, I shot down one of the three tall chiefs, and wounded another. On this our Indians set up the yell of victory, and arrows flew fast on both sides. As I was re-loading, one of my men fired from the wood, and the Iroquois, in dismay at the unlooked-for trend of the fight, fled into the depths of the forests."

The allies pursued, killing many and seizing abandoned canoes and provisions. Thereafter Champlain was the "smoke devil," and he and all white men were objects of undying hatred and revenge. This was the beginning of a long series of murderous conflicts. By joining the Hurons and Algonquins against their common foe Champlain hoped not only to make him-

self the indispensable leader of the tribes of Canada, but to fight a way to remote places, and to explore territories otherwise barred to him. The policy of France was to mingle in Indian politics, and hold the balance of power between adverse tribes.

THE GROWTH OF QUEBEC.

Hitherto the Quebec settlement had done nothing for the Church; but now Champlain brought out four Recollets (Franciscan friars), and to them committed the spiritual care of the colony. Their record is less brilliant than that of the Jesuits, but they did a good work, being the first white men to pierce the forest between the St. Lawrence and the Bay of Fundy. Their sandaled feet found a way to the Nepisiquit, St. John, to Cape Sable, Port Royal, and the country of the Great Lakes. At this time Canada's purse-strings were controlled by the Associated Merchants of Malo and Rouen, under Prince de Condé, whose aim was the amassing of wealth. Champlain's zeal for colonizing and converting was a thorn in the flesh to the Prince, who tried to have him recalled. Champlain, undaunted, went his way. The Heberts—husband, wife and two children—were the pioneers of domestic life in Canada. Then came eighty families from France to make homes in the new land.

With the growth of his colony Champlain's life became even more strenuous. He was made to feel both the hatred of his Indian foes, and the treachery of his Indian friends. The Algonquins, whom he had long befriended, fed at his table, fought for, and instructed, planned to seize Quebec and kill its founder. He crushed the plot with rude vigor, but did not regain full faith in his red brother.

One crowning bitterness he had, the surrendering of his citadel to the English. It had been a terrible year. Quebec, in the throes of want, waited longingly for the relief-ships from France. But in place of these

came the English under Admiral Kirke, with courteous demands for surrender. The "man with the iron breast" surveyed his weak garrison, his empty ammunition-room, his ruined ramparts, and then, turning a fearless front to the invaders, assured them they would take the place by force of arms if they took it at all. Deceived by this assurance, Kirke withdrew. But as he met and captured the relief-boats from France off the Gaspé coast, he came again the following year, when the starving fort welcomed him and the succor he brought. Champlain capitulated, and England's flag for the first time floated over Quebec (1629). Three years later the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye restored Canada to France. The Hundred Associates again took control, and Champlain was made Governor of Quebec.

On Christmas day, 1635, Quebec's founder and first Governor died after a two-months' illness. Priests, soldiers, traders, settlers, and grief-bowed men of the wild followed his remains to Canada's first church, and laid him to rest in Canada's first consecrated burial-ground.

DE LA TOUR AND SEIGNEUR CHARNISAY.

Finding herself once more the possessor of Canada and Acadia, France awoke to the importance of the New World empire, and to De la Tour and the Seigneur Charnisay was assigned the task of guarding her rights. These two fought side by side while driving back the New-Englanders on one hand, and ousting Sir William Alexander's Scotch settlement from Acadia on the other. But when they had settled their enemies for the time being, they fell into strife with each other. De la Tour held the fort of St. John; his one-time friend, now his rival, held Port Royal. Both were in the fur trade, and La Tour, who, from his position at the mouth of the St. John river, was able to intercept the trade of the inland tribes, aroused the

other's jealous wrath. Charnisay set out to undermine the other at court, and after years of intrigue he procured from the ungrateful king an order summoning La Tour to France. In case he did not obey, Charnisay was to carry him back by force.

When La Tour, secure in his innocence, and also in his stronghold, refused to yield himself prisoner, Charnisay with five hundred men attacked St. John. When beaten back he strove to starve out his enemy by a rigid blockade, but did not succeed. La Tour was as fervent a Huguenot as the other was a Catholic, and from the Huguenot town of Rochelle came a ship with stores and supplies. No sooner was she discerned off the coast than La Tour and his brave wife slipped through the blockade, gained her decks, and sailed to Boston for help. He got it, at a price, and with five ships swept down upon the rear of the unsuspecting enemy. The overwhelmed Charnisay fled to Port Royal followed by La Tour, who left him defeated and humiliated on his own threshold.

MADAME DE LA TOUR, HEROINE AND DEFENDER.

Charnisay's second attack was made in La Tour's absence. The defence of her home and of her husband's honor on that occasion, with the events that followed, has lent an undying luster to the name of Madame De la Tour. She assumed command, refused to surrender through a blockade lasting from February until April, and held fast to her purpose of defence, making heroes of her followers by force of example. One spring night Charnisay made an attack on the landward side of the fort. The defenders knew their struggle was hopeless, but for three days the indomitable leader repelled every charge. At last a traitor in the camp opened the doors. Charnisay, in terror lest this woman should again defeat him, called for a truce, offering honorable terms, and, to save her faithful followers, Lady la Tour yielded. Once in posses-

sion, he mocked her; he tied a halter about her neck and led her to an open yard, where she was forced to witness the hanging of her men. He then carried her to Port Royal, where she died three weeks later of a broken heart (1645).

On the death of Charnisay a few years later, De la Tour, after confuting at court the slanders of his enemy and receiving the fullest restitution that the king could give, returned to Canada. He found Charnisay's family in possession of wealth belonging to himself; but instead of entering into a struggle over it, he fell in love with the widow of his enemy, married her, and took her children under his protection. He held sway in Acadia until it passed into the hands of the English (1654), and again when the treaty of Breda (1667) returned it to France in exchange for a little sugar-island in the West Indies.

THE JESUIT FATHERS.

To win the new world for the Church, the Jesuits faced danger on every hand, laughed at hardships, dared to the death. In moccasins and snow-shoes, they marched with wandering tribes in the frozen north, hewing pathways to friendly and hostile camps in the heat of summer, climbing heights with some lithe brave for guide, wading waist-deep through the Ottawa rapids, dragging their canoes against the headlong rush of waters. In the stronghold of the Iroquois, in the far-off field of Lake Superior, they celebrated mass in places that even the reckless coureur-de-bois avoided, so beset with peril were they. Missions were established at St. Louis, St. Ignace, St. Jean, St. Michel, and St. Joseph. To these flocked the remnants of tribes scattered by the hatchet of the Iroquois. The hospitality of the Fathers was open, their authority supreme while it lasted.

Then came the death-blow to Jesuit rule in the scourge of the Iroquois. St. Joseph (Teanaustaye)

was the chief mission. Father Daniel, the priest in charge, had just finished mass in the church. Suddenly came a cry "The Iroquois! the Iroquois!" but the father, refusing to fly, blessed his flock calmly. When the Iroquois arrows found his heart he still held the cross fast in his right hand. The savages with yells of triumph stripped and gashed his body, and, to make them brave as he, smeared their faces with his blood. St. Joseph was left a heap of ruins, and the victors took up their march with nearly seven hundred prisoners.

Later came the attack on St. Ignace, the annihilation of St. Louis, and the martyrdom of Brebéuf and Lalemant. A silver bust of Brebéuf, containing the skull, is in the Hotel Deiu at Quebec. There is not now, with the exception of a few unimportant tribes around the St. Lawrence, a vestige of early Jesuit influence in all Canada.

ROBERT CAVALIER DE LA SALLE.

As he was the son of a wealthy, well-born father, and evinced an extraordinary intellect, it was but natural that the Jesuits should work to get young La Salle into their order. But after ten years he broke away, and in 1666 set out for a new life in a new world.

La Salle is the *Coureur-de-Bois* among the many French aristocrats drawn to Canada by love of adventure or hope of gain. In order to familiarize himself with their languages, and their nature, he cast in his lot with the forest tribes, wore their dress, ate their food, lived their life, shared their councils and their expeditions. After a long while the wilderness gave him back, brown, brawny and bold, to be the right-hand man of Frontenac, who had succeeded Courcelles as Governor of Canada.

Up to this time no systematic effort toward discovery of new territory had been made. The missionary thought only of converting the savage, the trader

only of trafficking in brandy and furs with the Indians. But under Tracy, Courcelles, Frontenac, Talon, La Salle, and Henri de Tonte, a definite purpose took the place of the fitful energy which had formerly prevailed. La Salle, on a long winter journey, came to Niagara one Easter Monday, and learned from the men left in camp there that not only had he lost his ship, the *Griffin* with her lading of ten thousand crowns value, but also a ship from France with his goods valued at twenty-two thousand livres had been wrecked at the mouth of the St. Lawrence. Undaunted, he continued his journey, and on the sixth of May saw once more the shores of his Seigniory, and the bastions of Fort Frontenac. "It was the end," says the chronicler" of a sixty-five days' tramp through a country beset with every form of peril, the hardest journey ever made by a Frenchman in Canada."

Obtaining leave of Governor Frontenac to resume his discoveries, he set out once more, passed the lakes in safety, crossed the portage to the Illinois, descended the Mississippi, and came to the sea. On April 9, 1682, with firing of guns, chanting of the Te Deum and shouts of "Vive le Roi !" La Salle took formal possession of the Mississippi valley, in the name of Louis, King of France and Navarre.

Returning next year with men and material to found a colony, his squadron missed the river's mouth. La Salle set out to follow the course of the river back to Canada, but on this fatal journey, in 1686, he was shot and killed by one of his own followers.

THE SEVEN-YEARS' WAR.

And now came the inevitable struggle between France and England for the possession of the New World. It was an ancient feud fought to a finish on virgin soil. Here among the solitudes and spaces of Canada marched the soldiers of both countries, the boom of cannon breaking the quiet of the forest aisles.

The French claimed all America, from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains, and from Mexico and Florida to the most northerly limit, with the exception of the English possessions bordering Hudson Bay. The country included in this vast claim they named New France. They had a military governor who held a miniature court on the rock of Quebec, they had feudal proprietors, and a picturesque society—savages, traders, priests, nuns, and soldiers—hardly the kind to grow into a staunch colony.

The English had nothing to compare with this French court. The romance was quite lacking. They built homes, cleared fields, developed trade, set their faces like flint toward a peaceful soil and a free people. The treaty of Ryswick (1697) restored to each nation any territory wrested from it by the other, and commanded peace, but no treaty made in Europe could hold good among conditions existing in the New World.

More war in the Old World, more raids in the New, and then the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), which ceded to England Acadia, Newfoundland, Hudson Bay Territory and St. Kitts in the West Indies. The English colonists increased in numbers and wealth, but France was still mistress of the situation, holding the gates of the two waterways, the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi, and the country to the west with its great inland seas. Also Acadia, though now an English possession, was still hers at heart.

Early in the war one Cadillac, a noted fighter and trader, had established a fort at Detroit, thus completing the chain of French supremacy in the Lake region, the highway to Louisiana. About this fort surged a ceaseless strife. Quebec at this date had between seven and eight thousand inhabitants, Montreal fewer than four thousand, and the rest of Canada about sixteen thousand.

At first England met with reverses. Border settlements were raided continually by the Indian allies of

France, with great loss to the British colonists. France finally sent out to Canada with her veteran regiments a brave leader, the Marquis de Montcalm.

A fearless soldier, James Wolfe, was at the same time appointed by Pitt to command the English army in Canada. In one particular at least the French and the English in this contest were well matched—their leaders—the two whose valor and whose death have been the theme of song and story in the language of both nations. Montcalm was forty-four years old, Wolfe but thirty-two, when was fought the battle that decided the fate of New France and cost the lives of both generals.

To defend Quebec Montcalm had fifteen thousand regulars and militia, with about a thousand Indians. To bring against this almost impregnable fortress Wolfe had nine thousand trained men, adapted to all forms of warfare. He intrenched himself four miles below Quebec, and chafed at the waiting game Montcalm forced him to play. On his right foamed and tossed the falls of Montmorency. Beyond these showed the long line of defences swarming with the white uniforms of France and flying proudly the *fleur de lis.*

Every entrance to the city, save the Palace Gate which gave access to the river, was barricaded. More than a hundred guns adorned the walls, and the river held a floating battery of twelve pieces, several gunboats and eight fire-ships. Mile after mile the St. Lawrence was walled by cliffs almost inaccessible. Quebec was a natural fortress, and Montcalm planned to protract the siege until the approach of winter should force the English to withdraw.

In the course of the siege the French treated the English to what Knox calls a display of "the grandest fireworks that can possibly be conceived." They loaded several ships with pitch, tar, and other combustibles mixed with bombs, kegs of powder, grenades, old cannons, swivels and muskets loaded to the throat,

set them on fire, and turned them toward the English fleet. The explosion was terrific, but owing to the fact that the match was applied too soon, the fury spent itself in vain display and din, harming not the enemy.

Wolfe formed a plan which was a forlorn hope. Up the face of the cliff three miles above Quebec was a path like a thread, with the tents of its guard just above it. Up this he would send a handful of men by night to hold the position until the army should follow. On a starless night the venture was made. The boats drifted up stream with the tide. When the ebb began they drifted back to what is now known as Wolfe's Cove. Wolfe, who had been very ill of fever, leaned back in his boat and quoted from Gray's Elegy "The paths of glory lead but to the grave," remarking that he would rather have written those lines than take Quebec.

The stillness was broken by the sharp *Qui Vive!* of a French sentry invisible in the gloom, "France," answered a highland officer of Fraser's regiment. "*A quel regiment?*" came the next question. "*De la Reine,*" replied the highlander. The sentry, expecting a convoy of provisions, let them proceed without further parley. To the next sentry the same officer said, "Provision boats—make no noise; the English will hear." "Pass on," came the command. There was no sentry where they ran ashore. Twenty-four volunteers led the way up the path. At the end of their climb they made prisoners of such of the guards as did not escape in the darkness. At last to Wolfe and his men waiting below came the sound of firing and of huzzas, and he knew the way had been opened. The troops scaled the heights, some here, some there, catching at bushes, bracing themselves with stones. Tradition still points out the spot where the first man landed. In the gray of morning a long file of redcoats moved quickly forward and formed in order on the Plains of Abraham. The troops, six battalions,

and the Louisburg grenadiers were drawn up three deep to face the city.

Montcalm's army formed, crossed the bridge in hot haste, entered at the "Palace Gate," marched through the quaint streets. It was a picturesque army; troops of Indians in scalp-locks and war paint, bois-brule, reckless of danger, Canadians whose all was at stake—church, country, home; regulars; the battalions of old France all in white uniforms with gleaming bayonets, La Sarve, Languedoc, Roussilon—victors of Oswego, William Henry, and Ticonderoga. So they swept on and out through the gate of St. John and St. Louis to the plain and the foe. The English waited grimly, as was their wont. The highlanders screamed defiance through their bagpipes. Montcalm's men were full of ardor, and he resolved to attack at once. Toward ten o'clock the French advanced, firing as soon as within range. When they were forty paces the English met them with a crash of musketry, the simultaneous explosion shaking the earth. Another volley and yet another. "Charge!" came the command from Wolfe, and British cheer mingled with highland slogan as his men responded. The clansmen of the north in their waving tartans were foremost everywhere. Wolfe, at the head of the Louisburg grenadiers, received a shot in the wrist. He wrapped his handkerchief about it and rode on. A second shot struck him, but he kept his saddle until a third lodged in his breast. "They run! they run!" cried an officer who watched beside him. "Who run?" he asked eagerly. On learning that it was the enemy he turned on his side murmuring: "Now God be praised, I die in peace."

Montcalm, who fought with equal valor, fell just inside the St. Louis gate. To the sobbing, shrieking citizens who pressed about him he said in his old courtly way: "It is nothing. Do not be troubled for me, my good friends." He was buried under the floor of the Ursuline Convent, in a grave hollowed out by the explosion of an English shell.

When the English took possession, the French garrison marched out with the honors of war. The question of ownership had been determined as France and England had ever determined issues, by trial by combat.

CANADA UNDER THE ENGLISH.

The campaign that ended the Seven-Years' War ended also French rule in Canada. The country having now become a British colony, many of the old seigniorial families sailed for France, refusing to live under the flag that they and their fathers had defied all their lives. By the Treaty of Paris, 1763, half of North America changed hands. Spain gave up Florida to England, France yielded all her possessions in America excepting Louisiana (which Spain appropriated) and two small islands off the Newfoundland coast, reserved as fishing stations. She also retained certain fishing privileges in the Gulf and on the shore of Newfoundland, out of which grew what are known as the French Shore disputes.

Then came a growing together of the two races that, until this time, hated and scorned each other. The English learned that under the French lightness of speech and manner was daring and strength of purpose equal to their own. And the French found out that the English who made such stubborn foes made the best of neighbors. In this far-away land the two became one people, forming a loyal center around which should eventually grow the Confederation of Canada.

CONSPIRACY OF PONTIAC.

With peace and prosperity both the French and the English now became indifferent to the Indians. This led to what is known as the conspiracy of Pontiac. Pontiac was a powerful chieftain holding in sway many fierce tribes. He planned to capture Detroit. But a young squaw revealed the plot to an officer with whom she was in love, and when Pontiac and his band came

to the fort on pretence of seeking a conference he met an army in full array. The blankets were pulled from his men, and each stood revealed armed to the teeth. Not wishing to have the era of peace broken, the English let him go. At once the flame of Indian war blazed along the west. Various posts were captured and destroyed. The frontiers of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia ran with what Pontiac called the "blood of vengeance."

In 1766 the rigorous treatment of Sir William Johnston brought the intensely proud Pontiac to terms. He had made a last stand for the red man's right to Canada, and failed. His submission brought a complete cessation of Indian hostilities.

THE FOURTEENTH COLONY.

Up to this time all the American colonies, though not in close touch, were under one flag. Canada held fast to her faith in England; her larger sister had begun to question the authority of the motherland, and to protest vigorously against her methods of taxation and government. Finally began the dispute that ended in the rupture of the empire. In the first bid for Independence (1775) Canada was invaded, and, in defending Quebec from an army under Benedict Arnold, for the first time French and English soldiers fought side by side. The Americans forced the passage of the Richelieu, captured forts St. John and Chambly, and took possession of Montreal. Crown Point and Ticonderoga yielded to Colonel Ethan Allan's Green Mountain Boys. Arnold and Montgomery laid siege to Quebec, and on New Year's eve 1775, in a snow-storm, led their forces to a futile attack. Arnold was wounded, Montgomery was slain, and the assailants withdrew, leaving their dead to be covered by the snow. Montgomery was buried in the St. Louis bastion, and a stone was placed there in his memory. That it was a war between brothers is strongly brought out by the fact that the leaders, Montgomery of the invasion and

Carlton of the defense, had both fought under General Wolfe in his last campaign.

Later a hot battle was fought for the control of Lake Champlain. The Americans on the destruction of their fleet blew up the ramparts of Crown Point and withdrew. Once more the inland gates to Canada were barred against invaders. By the treaty of Versailles, which ended hostilities, the Ohio valley, and the fertile land to the south of the Great Lakes was taken from Canada and given to the new republic. The southern boundary of the country was set along the mid-channel of the river, and through the center of Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, and Lake of the Woods.

CANADA IN THE WAR OF 1812.

After more than a quarter of a century of peace between the new republic and the mother country, war broke out afresh. The British claimed the right to search American ships for deserters. The high-handed action of *H. M. S. Leopard* in capturing the *Chesapeake* was repaid by the destruction of the *Little Belt* by an American frigate. At this time Napoleon with four hundred thousand of the finest soldiers in the world was engaging the energies of England, and British money was being poured out to keep the allied powers of Europe from collapse. The provinces of British America had to rally to their own defense. Along a thousand miles of border-line between Detroit and Halifax were scattered five thousand British troops. The population of that region numbered only three hundred thousand. Upper Canada, where the bulk of the fighting took place, had about seventy-seven thousand.

BROCK AND TECUMSEH.

All wars seem to produce a central figure or hero. In this of 1812 it was the Lieutenant-Governor of

Upper Canada, and the Commander of the Forces, Sir Isaac Brock. Swift and sweeping action was his method. Early in the campaign Brock, with three hundred and twenty regulars and four hundred militia, assisted by Tecumseh and his six hundred followers, crossed the St. Clair for Fort Detroit, and Brock came off victorious. Detroit capitulated. This capitulation included Michigan, the Adams war brig, stores, arms, and thirty pieces of cannon. It was a victory which had an effect on the whole struggle. On October 13 about eleven hundred American troops, followed by other detachments, crossed the Niagara and climbed Queenstown Heights in the face of the British firing. Up marched Brock to the rescue, shouting his order "Push on the York Volunteers!" but almost at once he received a shot in the breast, and, with a last request that his death be kept from his men until the fighting was over, died. The battle went as he had hoped, but in his death it was a triumph dearly bought.

The war wore to a close with alternating victories and defeats for Canada. The decisive battles were the American victories on Lake Champlain and Lake Erie and at the Thames. In the last named action General Proctor's army of British and Indians was totally destroyed. When the war was over, Canada had acquired a faith in herself as a nation, and a stronger patriotism. The war had taught her that, whether French or British, her people were one on the field. Her domains had been devastated, her sons slain, she had paid a price. But between her scattered provinces, all the way from Cape Breton to Mackinaw straits, the bond of brotherhood had so grown that confederation was a natural sequence.

THE UNITED EMPIRE LOYALISTS.

St. John, New Brunswick, still observes the 18th of May as its natal day, that being the date on which the Loyalists landed there. This staunch people, re-

fusing to fight against the king, or to live under any flag but Britain's, crossed into Canada in great numbers. So strong was their belief in individual and constitutional rights, however, that when the Governor of Halifax refused them representation in parliament they at once demanded that a province be formed for them. From Nova Scotia's side was taken a rib that formed for them the province of New Brunswick with a Governor of its own, a Council of a dozen members, and an Assembly of twenty-six.

For years the British Government kept a commission at work examining into the claims of the Loyalists and granting partial indemnity for losses sustained during the American Revolution. The total amount paid out was $1,900,000 above and beyond land-grants, implements and supplies. In 1789 the honor roll of refugees was made out. They were to be known as United Empire Loyalists, and after their names they were entitled to place the letters U. E. L.

THE FUR LORDS OF THE NORTH.

The fur trade of Canada was a magnet that drew to her all men—French, English, Portuguese, Basque, Breton, Norman, licensed traders, unlicensed freebooters, fighting together for the spoil. Pontgravé and De Monts held royal charters, the "Associated Merchants of St. Malo and Rouen" was the title of the company that had the wealth of France behind it. Then Cardinal Richelieu, craftiest of statesmen, formed the "New Company" with himself as president. But most interesting of all were the coureurs-de-bois, sons of noble French families, living in the forest the wild free life of the red men. They made wealth out of the beaver trade, refused to pay tribute and were a thorn in the flesh to governor and citizen alike.

On account of their numbers and standing, there was no controlling them. Seigneurs left their lands,

husbandmen their growing grain, soldiers their posts of duty, to join the coureurs-de-bois. In vain the order was proclaimed that any person going into the woods without a permit should be whipped and branded for a first offense, and sent for life to the galleys for a second. The forest was so safe a hiding-place that the coureur-de-bois could laugh at the threat. Marked with dare-devil courage, and a reckless gaiety which made mirth of everything—life, death, danger, "his was the lust of freedom," says Parkman, "the incarnate spirit of lawlessness, which could be indulged only in the secret fastnesses of the northern forests."

But even the coureurs-de-bois pale in interest before the "Ancient and Honorable Companie of Adventurers Trading into Hudson's Bay." This first and foremost institution of British America was founded in 1672, chartered by Charles II and governed in its early years by Prince Rupert, afterward James II, the Duke of Marlborough, and men of that ilk. It ruled the Canadian Northwest. The Company made laws, and raised armed forces. It held full control over trade, land, mines, and minerals. Its region stretched from Lake Superior to Hudson Bay, and far to the frozen north and west, over lands unknown even to the Indian wanderers. It reached the Selkirks and the Rockies, the Pacific shores and Vancouver, and on to the Klondike and Alaska of a later day.

Then came a period of rivalry with a new company—the North-West, employing French voyageurs, trappers, and traders; the Hudson Bay Company preferred north-of-Scotland men. The two companies pushed forward to the Peace, Athabaska and Great Slave Lakes. Alexander Mackenzie, of the North-West Company, discovered the mighty river that bears his name. He explored Peace river to its source. He found a way through the giant ribs of the Selkirks and Rockies to the Pacific. At Dean Inlet is a rock bearing this inscription: "Alexander Mac-

kenzie from Canada by land, July 22nd, 1793." He was knighted.

Simon Fraser is another giant of his generation. In company with the astronomer David Thompson he went west of the Rockies to explore, and to establish posts. He explored the Fraser, the mountain river of British Columbia, and the Records show many perilous undertakings carried out by him. It has been said that he received no honors for his strenuous labors, but the great river rolling seaward, whose sands are literally golden, bears his name, and is a fair and lasting monument to his work and worth.

Lord Selkirk was one of the most autocratic of the Hudson Bay Company directors, and was possessed of a boundless enthusiasm. He founded the Red River Settlement (which afterward grew into the province of Manitoba), peopling it with Scottish tenants. The North-West claimed this site, and hostilities began. In a skirmish between the two companies (1816) Governor Semple and several colonists were killed. This was but an incident of the violent ill-feeling prevailing early in the century. Lord Selkirk raised a force of eighty soldiers, with two guns, and set out to give his foes a lesson in law and order. Around the lakes, through the wilderness, he went, capturing the chief agent and several partners of the North-West Company, and sending them to New York for trial on charges of arson, murder and robbery. They were acquitted, but the lesson was not lost. Finally in 1821 the North-West was absorbed by its stronger rival, and bitterness died out.

Lord Selkirk had founded his settlement in what is now known as the "great wheat belt." Fort Garry (Winnipeg), its capital, became the meeting-place of the Fur Lords of the North, the home and headquarters of the Hudson Bay Company. Selkirk was succeeded by Sir George Simpson.

It was Captain Cook who really began the fur

trade in those parts. After voyaging twice around the world, he landed at Nootka, an island of British Columbia, to repair his ships, and received from the head chieftain a beautiful pack of skins. But Sir James Douglas earned the title of pioneer trader for the Hudson Bay Company in British Columbia. In fact, up to 1856 the colony of Vancouver was governed by one man—James Douglas. In that year he obeyed reluctantly the command of the British authorities to call a parliament.

Under pressure from the Crown, the Company gave back to Canada its proprietorship of the Northwest Territories, its ancient monopoly of trade, and in return the Crown awarded the company £300,000, and a twentieth of all lands surveyed for future settlement. The company retained its trading-posts and its special facilities for the fur trade. The Fur Lords continued to be a power in the commercial and social life of the Canadian Northwest, but they ceased to constitute sovereign rule in the land of lone spaces, or to be arbitrators of justice in an empire all their own.

EVENTS LEADING TO RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

The "Clergy Reserve" was a sort of tocsin during a troublous time in Canada. Two and a half million acres had been set apart, as the Act said, "for the support of the Protestant religion in Canada." This the Council or "Family Compact" interpreted to mean the Anglican Church alone. The other religious bodies protested vigorously, but vainly. This two and a half million acres consisted of every seventh block throughout the now rapidly clearing townships. This seventh block remained wild in the midst of cultivation, and became an eyesore to the people. Robert Gourlay, a young Scotch settler, sent to every township a letter containing the question: "What in your opinion retards the improvement of your township

in particular, and your Province in general?" The answer from each was "The Clergy Reserve." Dissatisfaction grew to a crisis, meetings were called, and Gourlay advocated an appeal to the Colonial officer. In 1817 was passed an act which proved that Canada's great need was responsible government—an act forbidding public meetings or conventions. Gourlay was driven out of Upper Canada, but the agitation for reform which he began never ceased until the country had a full and free constitutional government. The dissatisfaction was general. The Executive Council was looked upon as an oligarchy, at variance with the whole spirit of Anglo-Saxon freedom. As an advisory board its office was to confer with both Governor and Assembly, but for several reasons it directed rather than advised. In Quebec it was a French Assembly against an English Executive Council. The *Habitant* was a fiery fellow. He saw in every movement the old racial war, and was bitter accordingly.

The English in Quebec and Montreal made up the governing class, and included the mercantile and commercial element. The French were essentially of the soil, rural in occupation and interest. The feeling prevailed among them that the British held the reins and had the advantage in every way. The Assembly was composed of fifty members, nearly all French-Canadian. It had a French-Canadian Speaker, and at its first sitting it passed a resolution that all debates in the House, and all documents, be published in French as well as in English. The Legislative Council numbered fifteen, and was entirely English in its composition. Disputes between the Assembly and the Council grew to be of common occurrence. The former claimed full control of the revenues. The Governor, who was answerable to the Crown for the administration of all moneys, demanded a voice in the matter. A point of importance is the fact that neither

party understood or desired a full ministerial and responsible government such as both province and dominion have today. In 1837, when the grievance had been fanned into a rebellion, there were no departments for the carrying out of various duties, such as the management of money; no premier to be accountable for his cabinet, his policy, and his administration, no colonial Governor representing the British empire. These things developed with the passing years. Constitutional agitation and a growing experience brought about the change. The governing party was too autocratic, the other too resentful, for good to be accomplished.

In Nova Scotia the struggle, though equally determined, was carried on more reasonably. There was no racial question to create complications, no distinct dividing-line between the different classes. The Family Compact, here as elsewhere, held fast to all powers and privileges, but the people were less inflammable, slower to move against the rulers. Here the Assembly and the Council formed one body and sat with closed doors. Abuse of power, neglect of the public need, these with other grave charges were hurled against them, but without avail. Then came forward the "man who dared," Joseph Howe, who, from first to last, swayed the people, and urged them on toward the goal of good government. His sane outlook was embodied in his speech: "Keep clear of red fool fury. Let us get our constitutional rights by constitutional means." He separated Assembly and Council, and flung open the closed doors. He demanded an elective Upper House, and an Executive responsible to the people. That ten years elapsed before he succeeded in getting these was largely due to the wave of intense loyalty stirred up throughout the maritime provinces by the insurrections in Ontario and Quebec.

In New Brunswick another young Loyalist, Allan

Wilmot, conducted a similar campaign. He made his appeal against the Crown Land's Department to King William, personally, and received the guaranty that the Governor and Council should be held strictly answerable for all abuses. With the passing of the Civil list bill peace settled down upon New Brunswick.

In Prince Edward Island the people farmed and prospered. The waters separated it from the strife of Reform. But "the Garden of the Gulf" was all alive in spite of her placidity, and when the violent campaigns of Papineau and William Lyon Mackenzie ended in open rebellion, her militia was the first to volunteer for service in putting it down.

PAPINEAU.

The man to stir French passion and prejudice to a white heat, and to move the hearts of his people at will, was Louis Joseph Papineau. Handsome, aristocratic, daring, brilliant of wit, he was the idol of the French. He became Speaker of the Assembly in 1820. His violence of utterance incensed Earl Dalhousie, the Governor-General, to such a degree that he refused to accept him as Speaker upon his re-election to that office. Rebellion was inevitable. Papineau pictured to the people a free French Canada, and thundered against British rule. In March, 1834, the Assembly passed the famous Ninety-two Resolutions, and asked that the province be handed over to them. The refusal of the British Government to grant to any province an elective Upper House and responsible Executive brought matters to a crisis. Papineau started what is known as the French Rebellion (1837), but it hardly deserves that title, seeing that the Seigneurs and the Church set their faces against it. The young and the reckless cried, "To arms!" and rallied around Papineau at the "Liberty Column" raised for their hero on the St. Charles. The first scrimmage took place in Montreal. The back of the so-called rebellion

was broken at St. Charles, some months later, and Papineau withdrew to the safe side of the American border, where he was followed by the other leaders. The end of the year saw the end of the outbreak.

WILLIAM LYON MACKENZIE.

Upper Canada was keeping pace with her sister province. The leader here was William Lyon Mackenzie, and the center of operations was Toronto. The rebels established what they termed a "Provisional Government" on Navy Island, Niagara river. They issued new laws, and floated a new flag carrying two stars, one for each of the Canadas. Montgomery's tavern, a few miles out of Toronto, was the rendezvous. Here an old officer of Napoleons' drilled the young farmers into companies. Colonel Moodie, a Loyalist officer, attempting in scornful bravado to ride through the rebel lines, was shot from his horse. The Governor, Sir Francis Head, called on them to lay down their arms, and Mackenzie's answer was a demand for the redress of their grievances. The militia then led the attack, scattering the rebels and ending the farce of war. The victors burned Montgomery's tavern. The few prisoners taken were pardoned. At Navy Island the rebels had a gunboat, the *Caroline,* for carrying stores. Lieutenant Drew, of the Royal Navy, with a band of marines, captured her, bundled her crew ashore, applied a torch and sent her, a gallant bonfire, over the Falls of Niagara. Mackenzie's two-starred flag was lowered, and the Island was deserted. He was arrested in New York State and sentenced to an imprisonment of eighteen months for attacking a friendly nation. A raid against Sandwich was the last flutter of the rebellion.

The disturbances had the effect of centering the attention of the Colonial Office on the need of a better policy for Canada. Lord Durham, on being appointed Governor-General, invited the Governors of all the

provinces to a conference at Quebec, and at this Conference the subject of confederation was discussed. Through the efforts of Lord Durham the Act of Union was passed (1839), by which Upper and Lower Canada became one province with a Governor, an Upper House of twenty members appointed by the Crown, and a Lower House of eighty members elected by the people. At the opening of the first Parliament of the United Canadas held at Kingston, 1841, the Governor-General said: "We are bound by the principles of responsible government."

With the coming of Lord Elgin as Governor-General, responsible government was established in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario, and later in Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland.

A tory mob is a unique thing. In the Parliament at Montreal a bill to recompense the losses caused by the rebellion was fought against with fury by the tories. When it passed the House they strained every nerve to make Lord Elgin veto it. But that bold, wise leader said: "It is the will of the people, and must stand," and signed the bill. Whereupon a mob made up of the wealth and aristocracy of the city stoned him in his carriage. The mob then surged toward the House, and, breaking windows and doors, fired the building from within, destroying all the state records and a valuable library. This act of the rioters ended Montreal's career as the capital of Canada. Queen Victoria then chose as the legislative city, Ottawa, beside the vehement white cataract of the Chaudiere.

The British North American Act took effect July 1, 1867, and the anniversary of the new Dominion was ordained to be a public holiday perpetually. Dominion Day is Canada's real birthday. On this day she welded her provinces together and became a nation free within herself, bound to the motherland by a bond so gentle that in almost half a century it never has galled. It is a bond of sympathy and relationship rather than authority. British Columbia stood alone

among her mountains for five years more, then joined the great family circle.

THE CANADIAN NORTHWEST.

The history of the Northwest, whose wheat belts, ranches, mines, and mills constitute a large portion of Canada's wealth, was, until 1867, simply the history of the Hudson's Bay Company. The Fur Lords were no friends to settlement work. To discover new fields, to establish new posts, was their purpose. Civilization meant ruination to the fur trade, so, for centuries they allowed the world to think this great stretch of country a land of snows and solitudes. A French adventurer named Vevendyre was the first to erect a Post where the Red River joins the Assiniboine. He called it Fort Rouge. He also built Fort la Reine where Portage la Prairie now stands.

In 1867, when Confederation had become an established fact, this section of country had grown into an oasis of civilization amid the virgin prairies. The settlers were the descendants of French and British stock, and each nationality had its own parish school and church. The British farms showed thrift, but the majority of the French-Canadians continued to live as voyageurs, trappers, and hunters. This section was formed into a province called Manitoba, with representation in both the provincial and Dominion parliaments.

In the spring of 1867 Keewatin, with its 756,000 square miles, was organized into a District, under the jurisdiction of Manitoba's Lieutenant-Governor. Six years later Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athabaska, with a combined area of more than 500,000 square miles, were constituted with a Lieutenant-Governor. Regina was the capital. Mackenzie, Ungava, and Franklin were placed under the control of the Regina Government, and last of all, the Yukon, the gold country with its twenty-five millions of yellow dust.

Saskatchewan was the Indians' hunting ground. It was also the pasture-land of the bison, roaming it in droves. The bison belonged to them, the huge furry creatures had furnished them with food from the beginning. The Bison hunt was joy. The Indians and halfbreeds dreaded the march of civilization. Civilization meant rules, restrictions, loss of what was theirs by right, their privileges, their land. The patents or title-deeds petitioned for failed to come. Out of these and other causes grew the Riel rebellion.

Louis Riel was an unwise leader in a lost cause. His father was white, his mother an Indian, and early in life he chose to belong to his mother's people. He was educated for the priesthood in Montreal, but that life had no charms for him. He was more warrior than priest. His out-of-door life had given him a fine physique, his college training had developed him. Half French, half Indian, he had, with his fluency of speech and graces of person, a hatred of rule, and an indifference to bloodshedding. In the autumn of 1869, during the dissatisfaction growing out of the taking over of Hudson Bay property by the Dominion, Riel led a rebellion. With his company of braves he rode headlong into Fort Garry, put the Hudson's Bay Company to rout, seized the military stores, and formed a Government with himself as President. An expeditionary force under Wolseley marched from Toronto to Fort Garry, more than a thousand miles, but on its arrival the insurrection was over and Riel had fled. Later he led a second rebellion in 1885, and was captured and hanged. His grave in St. Boniface churchyard is still visited by many of his people, who look upon him as a hero and a martyr.

TWO MODERN WHITTINGTONS.

Confederation was meant to hold together the scattered provinces by a common bond, and the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway was a strong factor

in this task. It made possible the opening up of the wheat-belts, the ranching-lands, and the mines of the west; also it mingled the life, trade, interests and sentiment of the old provinces with the new. This railway has a mileage of 13,112 miles, and its total value in itself is $285,088,099. The generals of this undertaking were a Montreal merchant, George Stephen (now Lord Mount Stephen) and a Hudson's Bay man who knew the geography of the west, with its resources and traditions, as few men knew them, Donald Smith, now Lord of Strathcona and Mount Royal. They and the men associated with them, had work and worry past the telling. But when the last rail was laid, the last spike driven, these two men came into their reward.

CANADA OF TODAY.

Everywhere in Canada we see expansion and prosperity. "What the nineteenth century meant to the United States the twentieth century means to Canada," says Sir Wilfrid Laurier.

Quebec with its two-thirds French population advances slowly. The habitant dislikes change. He still ploughs with a yoke of steers, and drives an ox cart to market. But as farmer, fisherman, riverman, or merchant he is prospering.

Ontario with its fruit farms, dairies, manufacturies, and other industries is in many ways the most desirable province of the Dominion. We hear much of New Ontario, which in five years advanced its population from 2,000 to 70,000. Cobalt, which might be called its capital, produced last year 25,000,000 ounces of silver. Gowanda grew up in a night. In January its site was desolate rock and wood; in April it showed a bank, a mill, fifty stores, hotels, etc. Besides these silver towns, we have Sudbury, with its nickel-copper industry, and Rainy River District with its farms, timber, fisheries. Settlers are flocking into the region

north of Lake Temiskaming where 1,000,000 acres of arable land has been surveyed.

The farther west we go the more optimism we find. Westerners point to their golden wheat-belts and say: "Behold the Empire's granary; the bread-basket of the world!" Winnipeg, with its churches, colleges, electric system, railways, elevators, stock-yards, its business thoroughfares, etc., is the great city of Western Canada. Fifty new industries was its record in 1910. Having in 1887 less than 10,000 people, it now ranks third among Canada's industrial centers, with a population of 140,000, four hundred acres of parks, five hundred miles of graded streets, and a manufacturing output of twenty-five millions per twelve months. This grain market of the world, with a milling capacity of fifty thousand barrels daily, is the Chicago of Canada, as Vancouver is the San Francisco.

In Alberta, Calgary and Edmonton are distributing points for the West. Until the Canadian Pacific linked Edmonton with the rest of the world, she stood alone in the wilds. Now with three railways touching her she is the "Doorway of the Empire to be." The last census gives her population as 35,000.

A flood of immigration continues to pour into Alberta. In the last decade the population has increased twenty fold. It has fifteen hundred miles of railways, five hundred miles of irrigation canals, and the largest park in the world, containing six hundred buffalo. Last year Alberta produced over thirty million bushels of grain.

British Columbia with its mountain peaks, glaciers, gold fields, is as large as Ontario, Manitoba and the Maritime provinces combined. It is a great factor in the present mining, fruit growing, and agricultural prosperity of Canada. The yearly lumber output is valued at $12,000,000. There are over

CHATEAU FRONTENAC, QUEBEC, CANADA.—This picture is suggestive of much in Canada's history, reminding us of the stern old French governor Frontenac whom even the Iroquois feared; below is the St. Lawrence River, which played so important a part in the siege of Quebec.

100,000 acres of orchard. At the Apple show in Spokane, Washington, British Columbia won thirteen first prizes out of fourteen entries. She has over five hundred schools and for her population her trade is the largest in the world.

Central America.

SOMETHING OF ITS HISTORY.

WHEN Columbus made his fourth voyage across the Atlantic Ocean to the New World, he found, to the southwest of the islands of his first discovery, another coast, which he soon knew was not that of another island. He followed it southward, the land gradually narrowing all the way until toward the end of the long, curving strip it was less than thirty miles wide, forming the territory known later as the Isthmus of Panama. The coast he had first sighted was the northern border of what is now the State of Honduras, one of the six States—each with its own independent government—known politically as Central America (the other five being Guatemala, Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Panama), though the actual central part of the Western Hemisphere included also Belize (or British Honduras, a colonial possession of Great Britain), Yucatan, and Southern Mexico, on the north of Honduras. The whole area is about 200,000 square miles, and the population is more than 4,000,000, of whom probably fewer than 300,000 are white (Spaniards, Mexicans, and North Americans), the greater number being pure-blooded Indians, descendants of the aboriginal natives, and people of mingled Caucasian and Indian blood.

After Columbus had discovered this territory, Spain laid claim to it, colonized it, and subdued the natives, taking away their lands and possessions and treating them with great cruelty and as beings that

had no rights at all. They were made slaves, and thousands of them died within a few years. In 1665 England attacked the country and took possession of that portion now known as British Honduras.

Central America remained under Spanish control until 1823, when it succeeded in freeing itself. The inhabitants divided it into five States which formed at first a confederated union, but later separated into independent republics. In 1895 Honduras, Nicaragua, and Salvador united to form the "Greater Central America." In 1903 Panama, which had broken away from Spain in 1819 and passed under the control of the United States of Colombia in South America, emancipated itself from the latter authority and also became an independent republic.

On the east of this thousand-mile-long strip of land is the Caribbean Sea, and on the west the Pacific Ocean. Along the Pacific coast, from the Mexican border to the Isthmus of Panama, the country is mountainous, some peaks being 14,000 feet above sea-level. East of the mountain ranges the land is low and more nearly level and the soil is richly fertile, but so badly cultivated by the ignorant and indolent natives that it never has been brought up to the productive point of which it is capable. There are numerous small rivers and several lakes in these States; the largest of the latter is Lake Nicaragua, which is a hundred miles long. There is fine fishing to be found in all these waters, but a drawback to the sport exists in the shape of the huge alligators and dangerous serpents that infest their banks, and the possibility of a fierce jaguar or puma springing out upon the fisherman from the thick tropical forest or jungle at his back.

CENTRAL AMERICA A LAND OF VOLCANOES AND EARTHQUAKES.

The climate varies greatly in the different States. In the lowlands and near the Caribbean Sea a moist,

unpleasant heat prevails, not only disagreeable but dangerous to foreigners; but on the mountains and plateaus the air is dry and healthful. Sugar, coffee, and cacao are cultivated after an antiquated fashion, and many varieties of delicious fruits and vegetables grow almost without care. Large quantities of bananas, oranges, and cocoanuts are sent to North America every year. In Guatemala and Honduras once grew vast forests of mahogany-trees and the beautiful timber called rosewood, used in making fine furniture. Among these forests thousands of woodcutters used to work, felling the trees for shipment to other countries; but as these woodlands have gradually been cleared the export of cabinet woods is no longer large.

Excepting the East Indian island of Java, Central America contains the greatest number of active volcanoes in the world, forty at least being distributed throughout Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Salvador. In Guatemala is the highest of all, called Aqua (water), from the fact that it throws up tremendous volumes of water and great stones instead of fire. In 1541 it completely drowned the old city of Guatemala by a deluge from its crater. In 1835 the Coseguina in Nicaragua discharged such a terrific cloud of ashes and sand during four whole days that the surrounding country was in midnight darkness. Central America is a land of earthquakes also, hardly a month passing without a quake being felt.

PRE-HISTORIC CITIES.

Like Mexico, Central America is in one respect a land of mystery. Like Mexico, it possesses in different regions massive ruins of cities so old that not even the most learned archæologists have been able to determine who built them or what race of men inhabited them. When Spain conquered this land the native tribes were called Maya Indians, and some of them had reached

a degree of civilization equal to that of the famous Aztecs of Mexico. They are among the few American Indians who have left any written records, extending back several hundred years. Their cities were large and well built, and remains of them still exist. But deep in the tropical forests huge pre-historic ruins have been found, covered with elaborately carved figures and symbols. The latter appear to be hieroglyphic, but no man ever has found the key with which to read them. If it could be discovered, we should know who erected these wonderful buildings, and perhaps find out at last who were the first human beings on this continent and what was their manner of living. The more notable of these ruins, comprising palaces, temples, altars, and statues, are found in Honduras, Guatemala, and Costa Rica. One very remarkable structure, known as the "House of the Nuns," contains eighty-eight rooms built round a court, the walls of the building being completely covered, inside and out, with picture-writing and symbols, full of tantalizing fascination for those that long to read them. In Costa Rica the ruins are chiefly monuments, from which have been taken literally thousands of well carved small images of solid gold.

In some of these cities the inhabitants apparently lived in a species of community buildings, judging from the number and style of the sets of rooms; so that we may fairly regard these edifices as the very first "apartment houses."

CENTRAL AMERICAN INDIANS AND THEIR WAYS.

There are numerous excellent schools and universities in the Central American states, but they are attended almost exclusively by white children and young men. The intelligent and educated whites have all the wealth and power, and the Indians and half-caste people show little or no desire for education. They are content to live in their huts, working only

when absolutely obliged to do so in order to procure their easily acquired food from the tropical trees and plants. Nothing will induce them to work steadily, the time saved from the slight labor requisite to obtain the necessaries of life being devoted to lounging in their grass hammocks while their wives do the household work and attend to the family. They raise corn and bananas, sugar-cane, tobacco, and chocolate, which they drink seasoned with hot pepper. They plant cotton around their huts, and make their own coarse cloth, dyed with bright colors. One tribe will trade with another for articles they can not produce themselves. Centuries ago their ancestors were converted to Christianity by the Spanish priests, and even today they call themselves Catholics; but they trouble their heads very little about any religion, and are as full of the strange old Indian superstitions as any of the red men of western North America. Their religion consists chiefly in efforts to propitiate an evil spirit called Wulaski, and a water sprite called Liwaia, both of whom are continually warring against them; but of a benevolent God they appear to have little idea.

The Indians of the Isthmus of Panama are of mixed race; they live among the hills and speak only the Spanish language, inherited from their ancestors, who were conquered by the Spanish. They trade a little with the whites in Panama, but are so lazy that they prefer to be robbed by a white middleman doing their trading for them rather than take the trouble to do it themselves. Their dwellings are made of tree-trunks connected with bamboo and roofed with leaves and grass. Inside, pigs, poultry, dogs, and naked children run about the floor of bare ground.

THE PANAMA CANAL.

Perhaps no quarter of the globe today is so interesting to the whole civilized world as Panama,

especially that part of the territory on which one might place himself and quote the old hymn:

> "Lo, on a narrow neck of land,
> 'Twixt two unbounded seas I stand."

For in that region is now progressing the greatest business enterprise of the ages—the constructing of the wonderful canal that shall cut through the Isthmus from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific, separate North America from South America, and bring the New World and the Old closer together by the great saving of time that will be effected in travel across the oceans.

The Isthmus of Panama was visited by a Spaniard named De Ojeda in 1499, and Columbus coasted along its shores in 1501. Its length is about 480 miles, and its width varies from thirty to 110 miles. Like the other Central American States, it is mountainous, with a few high peaks. Spain claimed the territory after De Ojeda's visit, and gave it the name of the Province de Castilla del Oro. It was under Spanish rule, as we have said, until 1819.

From the time the Spanish flag was planted on the soil of the Isthmus, the scheme of making a "short cut" through it between the two oceans has been a question involving much discussion. The idea of doing this was first suggested in 1520, and later by the famous explorer Samuel de Champlain; but not until the nineteenth century did men talk seriously of beginning the work. While the United States of America was considering the matter of obtaining permission from the United States of Colombia (which then had control of Panama) to begin work on a canal through the Isthmus, a Frenchman went to the Colombian Government and succeeded in getting the desired permission for his own country to begin the work. A French Panama-Canal Company was formed, with a distinguished French scientist, Ferdinand de Lesseps, who constructed the Suez Canal, at the head of it. Work was begun in October, 1881. But the French com-

pany made many mistakes and wasted much money, and in 1889 the work was abandoned for lack of funds, after $260,000,000 had been spent on it, with the result that only twelve miles had been cut.

After the Spanish-American War of 1898, the United States entered into a treaty with Great Britain to try to have the canal declared neutral ground for all countries whenever it might be constructed, and that all nations should use it on equal terms. In 1903, after Panama had established her independence, a canal treaty was signed between the United States and the Republic of Panama, the latter granting the use of a zone five miles wide on each side of the canal route. The canal will be fifty miles long, and by means of locks will lift vessels at different points from one height to another until at the highest point (Gatun), they will be elevated eighty-five feet to a lake formed by the great Gatun Dam, 118 square miles in area, thirty miles long and eight miles wide. From the Gatun Lake vessels will descend by locks to the level of Panama Bay leading into the Pacific Ocean.

Work was begun by the United States in 1906, but before that many months were spent in making the canal zone habitable for the throngs of Americans that were to work there for several years. The place had to be made clean, and hospitals, houses and hotels had to be built.

THE DANGERS OF ITS CLIMATE AND HOW THEY HAVE BEEN MET.

The climate of Panama is excessively hot and damp; the soil is fertile, and bananas are the chief product, though, as in the other States, coffee and tobacco are cultivated, and rubber is collected in the mountains. There is only one railway, forty-seven miles long, though the other Central American States are well supplied with railways.

The canal zone has been, and still is, though in a

a less degree, a dangerous place for strangers because of the climate, the fever-breeding mosquitoes, and the noxious insect and animal life. It has killed hundreds since the work began. But it is the romance of modern science to stamp out disease, drive away terror, and defeat the army of death-dealing things concealed in every puddle—not with firearms, smoke, and blood, but peacefully, silently, with microscopes, drains, disinfectants, and mosquito-screens. This sanitary work is still going on along with the construction of the canal (which will be completed early in the second decade of the twentieth century), and its importance can not be overestimated. For, while the whole world will realize the convenience and the financial benefits due to the new and shorter route from Europe to Australia and the Orient, it is necessary not only to make the canal zone habitable, but to change the whole region thereabouts by rendering it sanitary and throwing it open to the white man.

Chile.

A SMALL BUT PROGRESSIVE COUNTRY.

THE first white man to land in Chile was the gallant Portuguese discoverer Magellan, in 1520. Fifteen years later, after Peru had been conquered by Pizarro, an expedition to Chile was made by Spaniards of Peru, but it was not very successful. Another was sent in 1540, which succeeded in annexing a part of Chilean territory. Santiago, the capital, was founded in 1542. For more than three hundred years Chile was subject to the Spanish viceroys in Peru, but in 1810 a revolt against Spain broke out, in which a young man named Don Bernardo O'Higgins—whose father, although an Irishman, had been a viceroy of Peru—played an important part and became the first dictator of the new Republic of Chile. Affairs pro-

gressed rather peacefully for a South-American republic until 1879, when Chile, which had helped Peru in her war against Spain, turned against her friend, at the same time fighting with Bolivia on an alleged violation of territorial rights. For a while Peruvian war-vessels kept off the Chileans, but one day the crafty enemy captured the Peruvians' iron-clad man-of-war, and after that they took other ships, bombarded the coast towns, and finally entered Lima in 1881, doing much damage wherever they went. They occupied Lima and her sea-port, Callao, four years, when a settlement of the quarrel was effected and the Chileans evacuated Peru.

The trouble was chiefly about land that yields nitrate of soda, a whitish-looking mud covering vast tracts in the northern deserts, which is very valuable for fertilizing soil, and is exported by hundreds of thousands of tons every year, its export-tax paying one third of the expenses of the State. The army, the navy, and the aristocracy live off this strange wealth spread out like so much money. No mining is so easy as the mere surface-scraping necessary to gather this precious stuff. Scientific men say the supply will last about twenty-five years. The Chileans say it will last "forever." An American writer has compared this aggressive, militant nation, clever masters of the western coast, gulping down its easy riches, to a boy eating the frosting off his cake.

As soon as one enters this republic he feels the movement of a swifter, busier civilization than he found in the other republics. The railroads are livelier; people of many nations travel on them; long trains of freight-cars loaded with nitrate are moving continually along the railways, which Chile was the first South American State to construct.

Chile covers an area of 290,829 square miles, and has a population of 3,250,000 whites, and about 50,000 Indians. The climate of this long, narrow strip of

land, extending along the western coast, is remarkably even and pleasant and always cool at night. A curious characteristic of the country is that it has only two winds, the north wind and the south. The south wind blows all summer, cool and dry; the north wind brings heat and tempests. The name "Chile" is derived from an ancient Peruvian word meaning "snow."

At a certain point the space between the eastern boundary of the Andes and the coast range consists of plains forming the valley of Chile, the richest part of her soil, well watered and fertile, feeding large herds of cattle and producing grains and fruits. In other parts are deserts and several active volcanoes. Earthquakes are of frequent occurrence.

THE PEOPLE OF CHILE.

As the traveler steams into Valparaiso harbor he sees vessels that have arrived or are about to set out for many parts of the world, most of them having aboard a supply of the fertilizing nitrate. As he steps ashore he is told that he has now crossed the equator, and is in line on the globe with Cape Town in Africa, with Sydney and Melbourne in Australia. Valparaiso has about 140,000 people, and is the chief commercial center for the capital and the rest of the country, and although, like the whole of Chile, its language and conventionalities are Spanish, it looks like a modern business town of the North. Trolley-cars run through the streets, and the shop windows look like those of New York department stores, except that all signs are in Spanish or in "English as She is Spoke." There is a large colony of Germans here, also many Italians and Frenchmen, and about six thousand English. All these foreigners are interested in the nitrate beds.

Chile's navy was one of the surprises of the Chile-Peruvian war; the Chileans are extremely proud of it and work hard to keep it up to a high standard.

A peculiar custom of the Chilean ladies—many of

whom are very beautiful, with marble-pale complexions and velvety dark eyes—is to dress in the morning in the Spanish style of many years ago, in dark gowns and a great sweeping *manto* of thin black stuff over head and shoulders; but in the evening or on any ceremonious occasion in the afternoon to assume complete European dress, in the latest Paris mode.

CHILE'S PLEASANT CAPITAL CITY.

Santiago, the capital, has about 400,000 inhabitants. It lies in the wide central valley of this long country, 2,000 feet above the sea, and with the abruptly rising Andes visible at the end of every street, like a beautiful drop-curtain at a theater. It has a large university, many schools, parks, and a museum of art. The people ride in trolley-cars, go to the theater and the opera, and to horse-races, and have a good telephone system. Newspapers abound, both in Santiago and in Valparaiso. The editors have a queer way of printing under the heading "Social Life" notices of deaths and funerals along with weddings and balls.

The Chileans are expert horsemen, and the Peruvians import their best stock from the rival country. Horse-racing has taken the place of the Spanish sport of bull-fighting, the latter amusement having been abolished in this republic.

In the southern part of Chile is a section that was once an independent State called Araucania, but which is now governed by the republic. Here dwells a strange race of Indians, recognizing a Supreme Being, but, unlike other uncivilized Indians, having no other gods. They live by themselves, and preserve many ancient and often horrible customs. They breed fine horses, and the men and women, boys and girls, are superb riders. In their own jealously exclusive way, they are as contented and well pleased with themselves as are their white countrymen of modern times—the busy, sturdy, progressive Chileans of Valparaiso and Santiago.

The Chinese Empire.

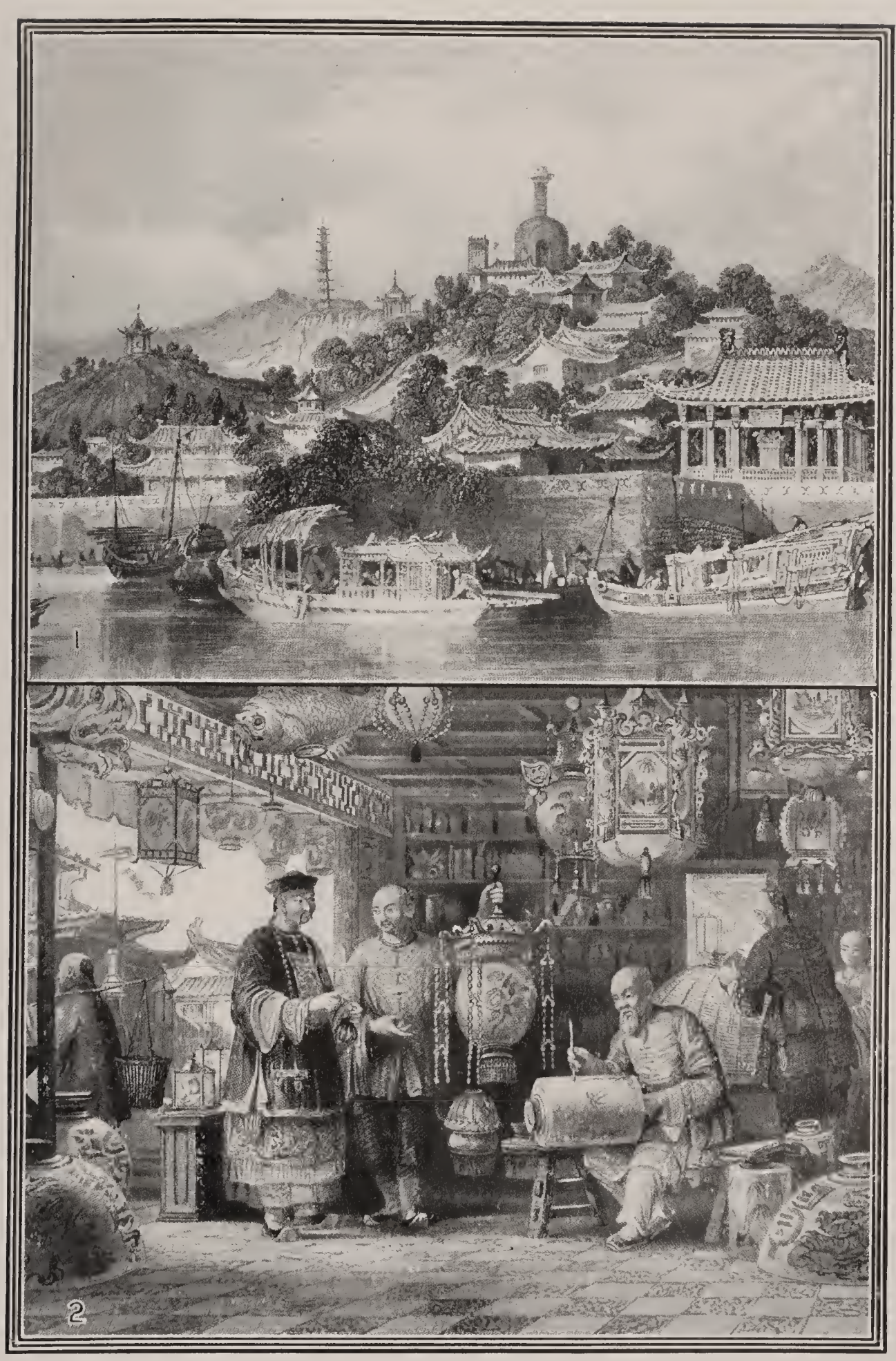
THE ANTIQUITY OF CHINA; ITS POPULATION AND CLIMATE, AND ITS WONDERFUL RIVER.

COMPARED with the claim to racial antiquity made by the more imaginative of Chinese historians, all peoples belonging to the time of Christ lived but yesterday, so to speak, for some of these historians declare seriously that the Chinese antedate the Christian era by several million years, and that the first man was a Chinaman who chiseled himself out of chaos! We may smile at this sweeping assumption, but it is true that China is a land whose settlement is of unknown antiquity; that before the earliest records of other peoples the Chinese had long been builders of cities, inventors of arts and discoverers of science, and spoke the same one-syllabled language that is spoken today.

Reliable history shows that the Yellow (or Mongolian) race entered the country at a very remote period, from some place in central Asia, and overcame the aboriginal tribes they found there, though descendants of these tribes still live in the Southwestern provinces. These immigrants brought civilization with them, and their descendants have continued to be the greatest civilizers of Eastern Asia.

The name *China* is unknown to its own people. It is supposed to have been derived from *Ts'in,* the most powerful of the ancient Chinese states. Most Chinese call their country Chung-Kwoh, meaning "Middle Kingdom."

This vast empire, with its dependencies of Manchuria, Mongolia, Jungaria, East Turkestan, and Tibet, covers an area of 4,210,400 square miles, and has an immense population, probably only a little less than 433,500,000, or more than four times the population of the United States and Canada combined. Its climate is not unlike that of the United States, except that in



1. A View of the Imperial Garden at Peking.
2. The Picturesque Interior of a Lantern-merchant's Shop at Peking.

the south the heat and humidity are greater. The soil in many of the great provinces is of a soft, porous quality, and is very fertile; but this peculiar earth needs a great deal of moisture; so unless the rainfall is of a certain amount the crops fail, and we hear of terrible famines that last until another crop can be raised.

China has one of the largest and longest rivers in the world, the Yang-tse-Kiang, 1,100 miles long, the great channel for trade and travel, and sometimes a great destroyer when, swollen by melted snow, it rises fifty feet or more, flooding fields and towns, and drowning people along its banks. They call it "China's sorrow."

THE GOVERNMENT.

Of its kind, the Chinese Government is very nearly perfect. It is formed on the model of a family. The Emperor is the "son and minister of Heaven," but he is also the "father and mother" of his people. Under his supreme authority, high officials administer the affairs of the eighteen provinces, with their departments and districts.

AN INTELLIGENT BUT SUPERSTITIOUS PEOPLE.

Education is prized highly and is found everywhere; it is the passport to social and official rank. Every village has its schools; literary men and scholars occupy the first rank in the social scale; farmers come next, as cultivation of the soil is rightly considered a most important and honorable occupation; next come artisans, and lastly merchants. Agriculture is pursued untiringly; every acre of land is cultivated, where possible; every hillside is terraced and planted. In the south rice is grown, also a great variety of fruit; while in the north the production of silk and the raising of the tea-plant are the two most important industries.

In Chinese the written character does not usually indicate the word, but is only a sort of picture of the thing to be expressed. So there must be as many characters as there are words, in all, about 50,000. Many are not often used, and if one masters about 2,000 he has an excellent knowledge of the written language. The literature is the most extensive in Asia, comprising the "classics" of Confucius and Laoutsze, codes of law, and many works on various sciences, and year-books dating from nearly three thousand years before Christ. Poetry and the drama are cultivated; book-shops are numerous, and all classes read.

Chinese arms until recently were very primitive, exactly what had been used for thousands of years, but of late years, especially since their war over disputed territory with their progressive neighbors, the Japanese (in 1894), the Chinese have adopted modern fire-arms in their immense army. Before that date the list of their military equipment contained such items as "five hundred and ninety iron helmets; one hundred and fifty bows, four thousand seven hundred and fifty arrows, nine spears; soldiers' coats with badges having the word 'bravery' on them; gongs, rattles, horns, and trumpets."

In some ways the Chinese are the intellectual equals of the ablest Christian nations; in other ways they are extraordinarily "behind the times" and superstitious, having childish fears of the most absurd "bugaboos" ever imagined in a nursery. This is the reason that so many years elapsed after the introduction of steam railways in other countries before China consented to allow the Imperial Chinese Railway to be built. Superstition is the reason that the vast coal regions—estimated as containing enough coal to last the world a thousand years—have been little worked. In both cases the explanation is that a superstitious belief called Fung-Shui warns against all digging in

or tampering with the soil, lest the balance of the earth be disturbed and terrible calamity result.

The Chinese are more imitative than original, yet they invented gunpowder, and used it as early as 1273. They also invented the mariner's compass at a very remote date, and in the tenth century they were well versed in the art of printing. In the time of Confucius all books were written on slips of bamboo with a pointed stick; next on silk or linen; and in 95 A.D. they had the invention of paper. Writing is done with a paint-brush and cake of India ink. They invented firecrackers, and many beautiful effects in pyrotechnics; and all the firecrackers used in the world come from China. They, too, were the inventors of porcelain, commonly called "china."

The Chinese are good at mechanics, and manufacture beautiful lacquered ware. Their carvings in ivory, agate and crystal are exquisite, though done with clumsy tools.

THE BOXER UPRISING IN 1900.

Superstition is at the root of the suspicious fear the Chinese have of the unfamiliar ways of foreigners, and in 1900, instigated by the Empress Dowager herself, this brought on the terrible uprising of a secret society called Boxers against all foreigners in the Chinese domain. Their plan was to rid China of them by a wholesale massacre. Many acts of violence were committed, and at last the Boxers attacked the quarters of the foreign legations at Pekin, to which every foreigner that could get there had fled. The siege of legations, within the buildings of which were many women and children, lasted two months; and just as it seemed that the Europeans and Americans must meet a horrible death, relief came in the shape of hundreds of soldiers from the countries to which the foreigners belonged.

The Emperor and his aunt, the Empress Dowager

(the real power behind the throne), fled from Pekin with their court. The allied military forces rushed into the capital, and chased out or killed all the Boxers they could find. In due time the allied Powers demanded the execution of the leaders in the outrages, and China had to pay $375,000,000 for the little experiment of her Boxers on the "foreign devils," to use their own phrase. The Emperor of that time and his tyrannical relative the Empress have died, and a young lad now occupies the throne, under the administration of a regency.

RELIGIOUS BELIEF OF THE CHINESE.

Religious beliefs have much to do with some of the curious customs of the Chinese. From very early times the idea of a Supreme Being has held their faith, and twice a year the Emperor must go to a special temple to pray to that Being for the welfare of his people. But in addition there are hosts of

> "Black spirits and white,
> Red spirits and gray,"

who are supposed to be always looking after the affairs of every person. There is also the worship of departed ancestors to be strictly attended to by every family. There are three great religions, however, besides these faiths—if they can be called religions—that are followed universally: one is Taoism, or what we call rationalism; while the faith introduced by the philosopher whose sacred name was Buddha, and the precepts of Confucius, the great moral philosopher (both of whom lived about five hundred years before Christ), form the rule of conduct of the greater part of the Chinese people. Confucius exercises the strongest influence of all, for in every city a temple is dedicated to him, and all delight in doing him honor.

THE GREAT WALL AND THE GREAT CANAL.

Two of China's wonderful structures are known to all the world—the Great Wall, about forty miles distant

THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA.—The most gigantic structure of its kind the world has ever seen. Its total length is nearly 3,000 miles. It was begun centuries before the Christian era.

from Pekin, the capital, and the Great Canal, beginning near Pekin and extending a distance of 800 miles. The Wall was begun 240 B.C., and extends 1,500 miles. It is from fifteen to thirty feet high, and square towers forty feet high rise at frequent intervals, while at every important pass there is a strong fortress. It was built to keep the Tartars out of China; but after a thousand years they entered it and in time ruled it.

The Tartars built the Great Canal, which for 600 years has been the great waterway joining North and South China. Many families live altogether in house-boats on this wonderful canal, carrying rice and tea from one part of the country to the other.

THE HOUSES AND OTHER BUILDINGS.

To an American, Chinese homes are very comfortless, with their paper windows, their lack of outlook on the street, their earthen or tiled floors, their straight, hard chairs, the absence of fire-places or heating apparatus, and of a second story. The better class of buildings are of slate-colored bricks, with tiled roofs and overhanging eaves. The middle class use sun-dried bricks covered with plaster; while the poor use adobe for their little huts, or bamboo daubed with mud and mortar.

There are few really notable buildings anywhere in China, except pagodas and temples, palaces, government offices, and gate-towers in some of the cities; but owing to the perishable nature of the materials used, and the destruction following wars and rebellions, few are of any real antiquity. In a civil war called the Taeping Rebellion, which lasted for ten years in the middle of the nineteenth century, the Chinese rebels destroyed almost the only building that was famous outside of China—the wonderful white Porcelain Tower at Nanking, which was two hundred and sixty-one feet high and was built in 1413. This rebellion, which the Chinese authorities were unable to

conquer, was put down by Frederick Townsend Ward, an American from Massachusetts. He offered his service in checking the prolonged disorder, organized the Chinese soldiers by modern methods, and, with the assistance of the British General, Charles Gordon, succeeded in wiping out the rebellion.

THE BOYS AND GIRLS OF CHINA.

Girls of the aristocratic or wealthy class have a pleasant time of play and petting until they are six years old; then comes the terrible torture of having their feet bound up in tight bandages so that they shall not grow any more but remain tiny, with steps always feeble and tottering; for the well-born lady must have what they call "golden lilies" instead of useful feet, else she is no better than common people or slaves. They wear gay-colored little silk trousers, and short coats, and learn to embroider them beautifully themselves. When girls are about fourteen their parents make a match for them with a man they never have seen and never do see until the wedding-day. The bridegroom does not take his bride to a separate home, as a rule, but to his parents' house, where she must wait upon and obey her mother-in-law like a servant. Girls of the lower classes escape the foot-binding (which of late years is gradually falling out of favor among the more enlightened of the upper class); but they are never welcome when born, and many are killed in infancy. If they grow up, they have to work very hard in a sort of slavery to their husbands.

Boys are hailed with joy, for every man desires a son, who shall conduct the worship of ancestors and of himself when he, too, must die. Boys also wear wide silk or linen trousers and short coats, and a tight little skull cap; their heads are shaved in front, and a tail of hair is allowed to grow and is pieced out into a long braid with red cord, for luck. Much attention and money are lavished on a son's education; he learns

to write the thousands of characters in his strange language, pages and chapters of the works of Confucius, besides Chinese history and the rules of politeness.

CHINA AWAKENING.

Many schools now are introducing Western subjects of study, such as European and American history, geography and arithmetic. From the numbers of her young men of high station sent to the United States to be educated in Western ways, China is learning that it is well for her to awake from her ages-old averseness to progress and to be willing to receive instruction from other peoples. The Chinese army is now drilled in modern fashion, with modern equipments, the postal service is improving, and two thousand miles of railway are in use, with other lines in process of construction. China has stood still in her civilization for centuries; but when she has fully awakened and fallen into line with the other nations, the change will be like the coming to life of a giant.

Cuba.

A RICH AND BEAUTIFUL ISLAND.

THE island of Cuba, "Queen of the Antilles" (the latter word meaning all the West Indian islands except the Bahamas), was the chief discovery made by Columbus on his first voyage. Passing several smaller islands, he reached this one, and supposed it to be the main coast of China. Of it he wrote: "This is the most beautiful land ever beheld by human eyes." The island contains about 44,000 square miles, and has a population of 2,048,000.

No place has a more genial climate, vegetation more thriving and beautiful, or fruit more delicious and abundant. Thirteen million acres of forest contain the

finest cedar and mahogany in the world. The most important products are first, sugar, then tobacco, besides which cocoa, bananas, pineapples, and cocoanuts are largely raised and exported. The soil is a marvel of richness, and almost anything can be raised in this tropical region. Many rarely beautiful birds are found in the forests; a curious tailless rat is peculiar to this island; and scorpions, tarantulas, and crocodiles are some of the disagreeable forms of animal life found there. The perennially green pastures afford food for immense herds of cattle. Inexhaustible deposits of copper are in the eastern mountains. In no other country is it possible to gain a living so easily or by industry to accumulate money so quickly.

HAVANA, THE CAPITAL, A TRANSFORMED CITY.

Havana, the capital, has a magnificent harbor on the northern shore. The city has spacious streets, with fine drives lined with palm-trees. The houses resemble those of southern Spain, with one or two stories, having flat roofs and the walls painted red, blue, or yellow. The opera-house and the cathedral are the largest buildings; the latter is said to have contained the ashes of Columbus, which were transferred to Spain in 1898. The public parks are numerous and very handsome. The tobacco industry is the most important in the city, one factory producing daily two million cigarettes. Havana was once a breeding-spot for yellow fever and cholera, due to utter neglect of common sanitary laws; but during the brief period of American occupation of the island, from 1898 to 1902, shanties were cleared away, streets were cleaned and repaved, new sewers were built and old ones were looked after for the first time since they were laid; and squads of men went from house to house, systematically cleaning apartments and cellars, burning up the refuse of years, regardless of the protests of the inmates of the dwellings. A fine sea-

wall and promenade were built, and at last Havana was transformed by American methods from one of the most disease-stricken ports in the world to a charming, healthful tropical city. Guantanamo, Cardenas, Manzanillo, Santiago de Cuba, and other populous towns have undergone the same purifying process.

CUBA'S LONG STRUGGLE FOR INDEPENDENCE.

In the world's contest for freedom, Spain has played a large part, but unhappily always on the wrong side. Greed, corruption, and cruelty have forced backward among the world's peoples a nation of splendid possibilities and of once grand achievements. The discovery of America, under Spain's auspices, gave her the opportunity to become a great empire; but in Cuba, as in all other countries where she has held sway, her rule never showed human sympathy nor respect for human rights. Any profitable industry that was developed in Cuba was taxed so heavily by Spain that the owners often destroyed their own sources of revenue rather than submit to the exactions that deprived them of profits. Nothing was ever done to elevate the people; education was severely discouraged. Revolt began in 1823, followed by other uprisings at short intervals. At last a revolution began in 1895, which lasted three years, the revolutionists being treated with terrible cruelty by the Spanish Governor and soldiery. The United States finally lifted up its voice and declared that the oppressed island at its doors should go free. Soon after this, one of the United States battleships, the *Maine,* was blown up in the harbor of Havana (February 15, 1898) supposedly by Spanish instigation. This brought matters to a climax; war was declared, and continued three months, when the United States forces destroyed the Spanish fleet and compelled the surrender of the Spanish army, which took place at Santiago, July 17. General Toral and his officers met the American Gen-

eral, Shafter, on the field; the Spanish army, numbering 23,000, marched past and laid down their arms; then the American forces entered the city to take formal possession. The Spanish flag was hauled down from the government palace, the Stars and Stripes were run up; the band played "The Star Spangled Banner," and a national salute of twenty-one guns announced that the flag of freedom was floating over the long-suffering Queen of the Antilles, and that henceforth government by the people must supplant Spanish misrule in the Western Hemisphere.

Denmark.

THE SMALLEST OF THE THREE SCANDINAVIAN KINGDOMS.

AFTER the decline of the power of the Roman Empire in Europe, the peoples of the Scandinavian countries became very bold and piratical, especially that division of these people called Danes. They conquered Normandy in 912, and after many invasions they conquered England in 1016, under King Canute, and Canute then reigned over both Denmark and England. In 1448 the Danes chose as king Christian I, who became the founder of the royal family that has held the throne ever since. For many years Denmark was an absolute monarchy, but now it has a constitution and a legislature (called the "Rigsdag") composed of two houses, the upper and the lower.

Denmark has had several wars with England, Germany, and Sweden, over territorial possessions, but today she is a prosperous little country, with a population of 2,585,660.

Denmark forms the northern part of the peninsula of Jutland, including the islands on the east, and it lies between the North Sea and the Baltic, almost blocking the way from one to the other. A narrow

sound joins the two seas, and through it formerly passed all the ships of commerce of Scandinavia, Northern Germany, and Russia. But in 1895 the Kaiser Wilhelm ship-canal was opened, which crosses the peninsula and connects the two seas.

Besides Denmark proper, which covers an area of 15,289 square miles, the Danish monarchy possesses Greenland, Iceland, and the West Indian islands of Santa Cruz, St. Thomas, and St. John.

THE CAPITAL CITY.

Copenhagen ("merchant's haven"), the capital, is situated on the sound, and is one of the principal ports of northern Europe. It is not an imposing city, but it is full of activity, from the crowded harbor to the clean, handsome commercial streets in the heart of the town. Its population in 1901 was 476,806.

The city has four royal palaces and many fine public buildings, of which the Christiansborg Palace is the largest. Here stood the old castle of the celebrated warrior-bishop Absalon, the man who developed Copenhagen from a little fishing-village into a great city. He was chief minister of state, general, admiral, judge, and bishop. Occasionally he would lay aside his priestly or judicial robes and go out to fight pirates, with signal success. He built a strong fortress against these sea-robbers, and settlers were attracted here because of the safety afforded by the fortress and its garrison.

Rosenborg Castle dates from 1604, and near it stands a fine statue of the children's favorite story-teller, Hans Christian Andersen, who was born in Odense, southwest of Copenhagen. Within the castle is a chronological collection of objects belonging to the Danish kings, those of the reign of each king, from Christian I to the present monarch, occupying a room by themselves. These apartments show a marvelous collection of portraits, furniture, weapons, royal robes,

jewels, and pottery, illustrating the arts and customs of the different periods.

The Palace Amalienborg is the royal residence, and the Palace of Charlottenborg now contains the Danish Academy of Fine Arts. The Museum of Northern Antiquities is the most wonderful collection of its kind in the world; it shows a complete series of objects illustrating the stages of development of the Danish people in their progress from savagery to high civilization.

The principal church of Copenhagen is distinguished for possessing a group of superb statues of Christ and the Apostles, together with a kneeling angel bearing a baptismal font, by Bertel Thorwaldsen, Denmark's great sculptor, son of a poor woodcarver of Iceland, and who, at the age of seventeen, won the grand prize at the Copenhagen Academy of Arts for a statue of Cupid.

In the fine Arsenal we see some of the oldest known species of fire-arms, and a sixteenth-century cannon twenty-three and a half feet long. Next to the Arsenal is the Royal Library, and within it are the priceless earliest copies of the Eddas—ancient mythological literature of the North.

The grand pleasure-resort of Copenhagen is Tivoli Garden. It is beautifully laid out on the site of part of the old ramparts. There are many attractions, and we gain a most pleasant impression of the happy, polite, well-dressed people of all classes who are strolling along its avenues and across the lawns.

SOME POINTS OF INTEREST.

Elsinore, the scene of Shakespeare's *Hamlet,* is within two hours' journey of Copenhagen. There is no doubt that such a person as Hamlet existed (only his name was Amled), and anyone may read the record of himself and his family. But the visitor smiles when, on a terrace behind the marine royal residence, a guide kindly shows him "Hamlet's grave," and

offers to take him to "Ophelia's brook!" These interesting spots have been discovered to meet the tourists' demand for them.

At Roskilde, the residence of the Danish kings for over five hundred years, we find the great cathedral, in which most of the Danish kings are buried. Under portraits of some of the earliest sovereigns are the words "King of England," a title no doubt retained long after England had forgotten her Danish masters. Roskilde is now only a little town, although it was the chief city until Copenhagen supplanted it. Many rural lanes in the neighborhood bear the names of once populous streets, and "where once the chivalry of Denmark trod, the rush grows long and rank, and Roskilde and its glories are part and parcel of the past."

THE PEOPLE ARE INTELLIGENT AND INDUSTRIOUS.

All Danish children between the ages of seven and fourteen must attend schools, which are of the highest grade of excellence. Indeed, few if any countries can compete with Denmark in regard to her educational system. The Danes are an intelligent and well-educated people. Gymnastics and manly sports play a large part in Danish school life, and every school has a lending-library, well patronized by the bright little Danes. Girls are now taught nearly all the subjects that are studied by boys; they take the same examinations and acquit themselves equally well.

The feminine Danes appear to be a nation of knitters. Everywhere, at doors and windows or sitting under the trees, grandmothers, mothers, maidens, and tiny girls are rattling their needles, the product of which, in innumerable forms of wearing-apparel, goes all over the world. The laboring classes are comfortably housed and clad, much more so than in Great Britain, and their dwellings, as a rule, are very clean. Many of the peasant women still weave their own linen and

woolen stuffs and the men make the wooden shoes of the family, some of the furniture and many simple farm implements.

Denmark's commercial importance is steadily growing; between eight and nine thousand vessels annually enter its port at Copenhagen. Its royal porcelain works enjoy a considerable reputation. Its fields are rich with wheat, oats, rye, and potatoes; and the pastures with grass; fat cattle are grazing everywhere, to make the $30,000,000 worth of butter which this great dairy country sends annually to England alone, and its people are happy, prosperous and contented.

Egypt.

AN ANCIENT AND WONDERFUL COUNTRY.

NO country in the world gives one so great a sense of age as Egypt; and although its beauty is fascinating, and the life of its people is full of color and surprises, its hoary antiquity makes the strongest appeal to the imagination. This fact is realized when one reflects that while the whole authentic history of the Bible, from the time of Abraham to that of the Apostles, covers only two thousand years, the recorded history of Egypt began six thousand years ago. From the monuments near Cairo, built three thousand years ago, to the great dam at Assuan, a marvelous modern monument of engineering, each period has left its mark for future generations to study.

EGYPT'S EARLY CIVILIZATION.

When we read in the Bible that the patriarch Abraham visited Egypt with his wife Sarah, and stayed at Tanis, founded by a descendant of a succession of kings who had begun to reign three thou-

sand years before Abraham's time; when we learn that modern research has proved that even before that early period there were kings and an earlier civilization, we begin dimly to realize the almost unthinkable age of Egypt. Over all the land are scattered records of Bible times in the hieroglyphic writings on monuments and walls of tombs, many of which narrate events of which we read in the Scriptures; so that we may feel sure that some of these old stories are not simply legends, but true records of real people. Still, no one knows the time of the actual beginning of the population in this mysterious land.

Throughout her thousands of years of history, Egypt, with her riches, her civilization, learning, and arts, had great influence on all other nations. As she lies close to Europe and Asia, most of the great caravan trade in the ancient days passed through her dominion between these continents and Africa; while her harbors on the Mediterranean controlled the trade by sea, all this commerce bringing her great wealth and power.

Thirty years before Christ's birth the line of the Pharaohs became extinct in Egypt, and for four hundred years the Romans ruled over the land. Under their rule Christianity became the religion of the country, but today Mohammedanism prevails, the only Christian sects being the Copts (the only real descendants of the ancient Egyptians) and the Abyssinians, the mass of the people being Arabs.

After the Romans came the Mohammedans, and their rise from a comparatively barbaric state in the heart of Arabia to the mastery of Syria, Persia, Asia Minor and Egypt, northern Africa and southern Spain, is one of the marvels of history. No less marvelous is the strikingly original and beautiful art they created, as we may see in their architecture and in their exquisite decorations.

Notwithstanding the size of the country, covering

an area of more than 11,000 square miles not including the great desert lying in its center, and its favorable situation and former power, except in a few cities it is not thickly populated; the reason is that the greater part of it is simply sand and rock, without water, and unfit for human habitation. The only part that is habitable is the comparatively narrow strip of land that forms the banks of the Nile, covering an extent of three hundred miles, and the rich delta spreading from Cairo to the Mediterranean Sea. This divides the country into two sections, called Upper and Lower Egypt. Small as this habitable part appears to be, its fertility is beyond that of any other land, owing to the yearly overflow of the Nile, which is explained in our story of Cairo.

ALEXANDRIA: ITS WONDERFUL MUSEUM AND LIBRARY.

Our first view of Egypt is that of most travelers—the city of Alexandria, visible from the sea. Across a long, flat coast-line it appears to rise suddenly from the water, the first visible object being the great monument called Pompey's Pillar—which, by the way, has nothing to do with Pompey, the colleague of Julius Cæsar, as it was made more than three hundred years after Pompey's time, and is said to have been erected by the people in gratitude to the Emperor Diocletian for having presented them with a large gift of corn in a time of famine.

Next we see that part of the land that was called the "Isle of Pharos," on which stood one of the Seven Wonders of the World, a great lighthouse, 590 feet high, built three hundred years before the Christian era, by one of the Ptolemys of Egypt.

We find it hard to realize that we are standing on the threshold of the mysterious land of Egypt, and are still more bewildered when we come into a great square, surrounded by pavements, electric lights, French shops, and fine hotels, with many Englishmen

BLARNEY CASTLE, IRELAND.—A ruined castle near Cork. On the highest point of the tower is a stone, kissing which, it is said, will make one irresistibly eloquent.

and Americans mingled in the usual motley throng of Oriental streets. It seems impossible that this can be the ancient city whose outlines were traced with the contents of a flour-bag by Alexander the Great when he determined to found a city on this fine and natural harbor. But a few hours' study of the town brings us into contact with sights, sounds, and phases of life that were old before the foundations of Alexandria were laid.

In its palmy days the city was worthy of the name of its great founder; palaces and temples, baths, museums, libraries, schools, treasures of art, and a vast commerce, combined to make it a resort of men of wisdom and wealth from every part of the known world. Its celebrated Museum was founded by Ptolemy Soter, and all lands owe a debt of gratitude to the illustrious scientific men that issued from this noble institution to enlighten mankind—geographers, astronomers, mathematicians, mechanics, historians, and physicians.

The famous library of the Ptolemys was attached to the Museum and was the most wonderful collection of books in the world. In the time of Julius Cæsar's war with Alexandria the library contained 700,000 volumes, of which 400,000 were burned by accident. No library ever had such a history; it was founded two hundred and eighty-three years before Christ's birth, and it contained a copy of every known work. If any person brought a new book into Egypt, it was seized and placed in this library, a copy of it being written and handed to the owner of the original. From this fact we learn that the Ptolemys were the original collectors of "first editions."

For many years after the death of Alexander the city increased in prosperity and beauty, but after the Mohammedan conquerors laid the foundation of Cairo, and the route to India round the Cape of Good Hope was discovered (1497), Alexandria declined rapidly,

finally dwindling into insignificance; the population fell from one million to five thousand, and Alexandria would have ceased to be, but for the efforts of Mohammed Ali, through whom, early in the nineteenth century, modern Alexandria came into being, having today a population of nearly half a million.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

Under the rule of one of Egypt's greatest Khedives, Ismail Pasha, who died in 1895, the Suez Canal was constructed, and the facilities for the loading and unloading of vessels at the port of Alexandria were improved. The exports from Egypt by way of Alexandria are cotton, wheat, gums, sugar, coffee, wool, ivory, ostrich-feathers, and mother-of-pearl.

Leaving the old city, where Cæsar and Mark Antony fell victims to the charms of the "serpent of the old Nile," Queen Cleopatra, daughter of the Ptolemys, we go in search of some of the greatest wonders of the past.

THE VILLAGES.

On the way to Cairo, a five-hours' journey, we pass Egyptian villages of the *fellaheen,* or laboring class, who work for almost nothing and whose condition seems to us to be pitiful. To our eyes these villages look like nothing more than mud-heaps, and the houses like mere cells burrowed in the mud. It is a mystery how the veiled women, attired in spotless white, can live in such places and not be begrimed; yet many of them do, although the older women are usually the picture of uncleanliness. The smaller children prance around attired in nothing but their own brown skins, while older ones assume some little drapery.

THE GREAT PYRAMIDS: AMAZING ACHIEVEMENTS IN MASONRY.

After a visit to Cairo, we set out for the Pyramids, eight miles away. That these stupendous piles of

stone are the oldest and most wonderful monuments of human industry, there is no question; and that the three at Gizeh were erected as tombs by Cheops, Chephron, and Mycerinus is now known with as much certainty as that the Pantheon at Rome was built by Agrippa and the Coliseum by the Flavian emperors. But it is difficult to realize that they were built between five and six thousand years ago. The Egyptian city of Thebes was ancient before the foundation of Rome was laid; but the Pyramids preceded the earliest record of Thebes by a thousand years.

The Great Pyramid of Cheops, begun three thousand seven hundred and thirty-three years before Christ's birth, is four hundred eighty-one feet high and its base covers thirteen acres—a solid mass built of enormous blocks of stone, rising one above another in huge steps, the interior containing several chambers.

We may judge of the prosperity of Egypt when we realize that at that remote period she could employ for thirty years one hundred thousand men in the unproductive labor of cutting and moving these stones, and one hundred thousand men for years before that in making the great road from the river to the site chosen, over which the ponderous stones were brought.

The Great Pyramid is entered from the north on the thirteenth tier, and narrow passages lead to the Chamber of the Queen, a great hall, and the Chamber of the King, where stands an empty stone coffin, from which the royal remains were removed long ago. Originally, all these huge tombs for royalty were encased in white marble; but the Turks removed it to provide building-materials for their mosques at Cairo.

With the help of strong Arab guides, we may ascend the Pyramid to the flat space at the top, to enjoy a view unequaled in the world. All Lower

Egypt lies at our feet: Cairo and its Citadel, its mosques, and the long line of railway; the Nile, with its innumerable canals, winding away until it meets in the horizon; gardens and fields, and stately palm-trees, and, in startling contrast, the neighboring desert, a howling sea of sand.

THE SPHINX.

In a sand-hollow, a short distance from the Great Pyramid, stands the oldest and most mysterious of all human monuments—the Sphinx. A huge head and neck, hewn out of the natural rock, it rests there, "gazing straight on with calm, eternal eyes" across the vista of seven thousand years—for it was already old before the Pyramid of Cheops was begun. Despite the fact that it has kept watch over the world through millenniums, and that the face was terribly mutilated by a fanatic Arab, and used as a target by the barbarous Mamelukes, there is still a thrilling majesty in that marvelous monument, whose purpose no man has ever been able to discover. Of its unending vigil over the affairs of the world, a distinguished English writer has said: "This unworldly Sphinx has watched like a providence with the same earnest eyes, the same sad, tranquil mien; and we shall die, and Islam will wither away, and still that sleepless rock will lie watching and watching the works of a new, busy race with the same sad, earnest eyes, the same tranquil mien everlasting. You dare not mock at the Sphinx!"

From this point one can see, far in the distance, the Sakkara pyramid, and others; and near Sakkara is the site of ancient Memphis.

In the Delta were once many ancient cities, but under continuous irrigation the land has become so soft that most of their stones have sunk into the mud. All that remains of Heliopolis (the city of On, mentioned in the Bible) is one great obelisk standing in solitary grandeur in a field.

TEMPLES.

In Upper Egypt, where the soil was firmer, many old temples are still in existence, and on our way south to Assouan we must stop to see the temples of Dendereh, two thousand years old, which has upon its walls a sculptured portrayal of Cleopatra and her son.

Egyptian temples are usually approached by a series of gateways, and between these arches is an avenue of sphinxes facing the pathway leading to the grand entrance to the temple, within which is an open court with covered colonnades, and a shrine to the god or goddess to whom the temple was erected.

One of Egypt's wonders in the way of statues is at Abou Simbel, where huge figures of King Rameses II form the front of a temple, hewn out of solid rock, each figure being sixty-six feet high. Another marvel is at Thebes, where two colossal figures of ancient kings, each sixty feet high and carved out of a single block, have gazed from their thrones for centuries over the plains of Thebes.

A FAMOUS PIECE OF ENGINEERING.

After a journey up the Nile nearly 600 miles from Cairo we reach Assouan, at the northern end of the First Cataract. Here stands the famous Assouan Dam, the greatest engineering work of its kind ever constructed; begun in 1898 by a company of English architects and engineers, it was ready for operation in 1902. It is a mile and a quarter long, and the Nile, which has been raised about sixty-six feet, pours through one hundred and eighty sluices, or great gates twenty-three feet high, which are opened or closed according to the season of the year and the necessity of irrigation. The water is conducted through canals, distributing the fertilizing red sediment of the river, brought from Abyssinia, over all parts of the country devoted to agriculture.

Thus, by the construction of this mighty monument of modern skill, at a cost of $12,500,000, the earning power of Egypt is computed to have been increased fully $13,000,000 every year. All that Egypt now wants is a good government, and then it will become again what it was in the past—a land of plenty and one of the greatest of Eastern powers.

England.

PART OF THE GREAT EMPIRE UPON WHICH THE SUN NEVER SETS.

OF the earliest inhabitants of the island of Great Britain we have no knowledge except what we may infer from a few rude monuments. There are still in existence structures called cairns, cromlechs, or dolmens. These consist of two or more stones set upright, with a large stone laid upon them to make a sort of roof. All these stones are rough, apparently set up by people who had no tools that would cut stone. The best specimen is near Aylesford, in Kent county, and is called Kits Coity House. These, and the similar structures at Stonehenge (the latter, however, showing the use of tools), are the work of vanished peoples, of whom nothing is known except that they raised these crude monuments probably for ceremonies of worship.

Several centuries before Christ the Phœnicians, from the Mediterranean, sailed northward to the coast of Cornwall, and in the year 55 B.C. Cæsar invaded England, and there the written history of England begins. It was actually conquered by the Romans under Claudius about a century later, but not without a bloody struggle with the natives led by their Queen Boadicea. The Romans constructed many roads, built several walls across the north of England to keep out the Highlanders, and established walled cities, temples,

and baths. At the end of four centuries they were obliged to recall their legions for the protection of Rome itself, and the Britons were left in possession of their own island. Then came the Angles and Saxons from Germany, who destroyed all they could of the Roman structures, and drove the remnant of the Britons to Ireland, Scotland, and Wales. They divided the land into seven little kingdoms, which in 802 were united under King Egbert. The most important reign of this line was that of Alfred the Great (871-901). He twice drove out the invading Danes, established schools, compiled a code of laws that began with the Ten Commandments and ended with the Golden Rule, and translated books from the Latin into Anglo-Saxon.

In 1066 William, Duke of Normandy, claiming the English crown, crossed the Channel with a large army, won the battle of Hastings, in which the English king, Harold, was slain, and made himself master of the island. This he parceled out among six hundred of his followers, introduced a modification of the feudal system, and caused the Domesday Book to be written. This record, which is still preserved in Westminster, served the same purpose as a modern census. It told the number of persons in each county, who were landholders, the character of the farms, the condition of the churches, the kinds of money in use, etc. Thus the Normans became the aristocracy—the ruling class—while the Anglo-Saxons were the working class.

The next reign of importance was that of Henry I, who established courts of law and made the rude beginning of the present form of the British government. Henry II employed the system of courts, restrained the great powers of the clergy, virtually abolished the feudal system by organizing a national militia, and annexed Ireland to the kingdom.

The worst ruler that England ever had was John, who became king in 1199. By his wickedness and folly

England lost the western provinces of France, and the intolerable state of things at home was ended only when the Barons compelled him to sign the Magna Carta at Runnymede, June 15, 1215. This great Charter gave the whole people a large measure of liberty and safety.

In the next two reigns (Henry III and Edward I) the Parliament was established, Scotland and North Wales were conquered, and gunpowder came into use. John Wycklif, forerunner of the Reformation, stoutly opposed papal supremacy, or the rule of the Roman Catholic Church. His translation of the Bible (1382) and Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* are credited with establishing the supremacy of the English language over French and Latin, which had been the language of the court and clergy.

When Parliament, in 1399, deposed Richard II and gave the crown to Henry IV, passing over two heirs who by inheritance would have preceded Henry, the result was the Wars of the Roses—the House of York (whose emblem was a white rose) contending against the House of Lancaster (red rose) and finally prevailing by the enthronement of Edward IV. In these wars eighty princes died, and more than half of the nobility lost their lives or fled the country. Edward's two young sons, after his death, were murdered in the Tower of London by their uncle, who ascended the throne as Richard III but was killed in the battle of Bosworth Field. Henry VII, of the House of Lancaster, married a princess of the House of York, and thus the contention of the roses was forever ended.

The reign of Henry VIII was marked by two famous incidents. The first was the separation of England from the Church of Rome; the other was the fact that Henry had six wives in succession. Two he divorced, two he executed, one died peaceably, and one survived him. He was followed on the throne by Edward VI and by his daughter who was called

"Bloody Mary" from her fanatical persecution of Protestants; and she, five years later (1558), by her half-sister Elizabeth. So brilliant were many of the public men of Elizabeth's time, and so important the events, that her reign is famous as "the age of Elizabeth," although she herself was in hardly any respect admirable. That age included Sir Philip Sidney, William Shakespeare, Edmund Spenser, Francis Bacon, Sir Francis Drake, Ben Jonson, Sir Walter Raleigh, and Sir Humphry Gilbert. The sailing and destruction of the great Spanish Armada, intended for the conquest of England, was one incident of this reign, and the colonizing of Virginia was another.

James I became King in 1603, and in his reign of twenty-one years the Puritans arose, the Pilgrims emigrated to Holland and thence to America, and the Bible was translated as we now have it. Charles I so persistently endeavored to be an absolute monarch, and so habitually and shamelessly broke his pledges, that in 1649 he was executed by order of Parliament. Then followed the Commonwealth, with Oliver Cromwell as Lord Protector; and this again was an era of great men—John Hampden, John Pyne, and John Milton among them. The restoration of the Stuarts to the throne in the person of Charles II resulted disastrously in the driving out of James II, a bigot and tyrant, by a bloodless revolution in 1688. A college in Virginia recalls the next reign, that of William and Mary, succeeded by that of Annie, whose time was marked in literature by Pope, Addison, Steele, and DeFoe. The reigns of the four Georges were not brilliant—except perhaps for Goldsmith, Sheridan, and Samuel Johnson in literature—and the third George foolishly ruled his American colonies so tyrannically that he lost them. From that period the reader may pass to the long reign of Victoria (1839-1901), which was marked by wonderful advances in science, ex-

ploration, and literature. Victoria was succeeded by Edward VII, who died, 1910, and George V ascended the throne, being crowned at Westminster, 1911.

THE MIGHTY EMPIRE.

The official designation of the British islands since the legislative union of 1801 has been the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. England, with Wales, covers an area of 57,668 square miles, and has a population of 32,000,000.

But the United Kingdom is only a part of the territory governed by Great Britain. It has colonies on every continent and in nearly all seas. These colonies, together with the United Kingdom, form the mighty British Empire. Chief among these possessions are India, Canada, and Australia, wonderful countries whose history you can read in other parts of this volume. In order to maintain her supremacy, Great Britain has a standing army of 300,000 men, besides a large force of reserves, and the navy, officers and men, numbers 126,000. England has many large cities, each one of which has its own interesting history, splendid buildings and industrial life. London, Manchester, Birmingham are the greatest of English cities and their influence is world-wide. You will be interested in reading about them in the section The Stories of Great Cities, in this volume.

LIVERPOOL AND CHESTER.

Let us glance at Liverpool before going to a more attractive place—the famous city of Chester. Liverpool, next to London, is the largest port of Great Britain. It is about the size of Boston, in the United States, and is one of the busiest cities in Europe. From its massive stone wharves we may watch great steamers from all countries bringing their products to England, or loading with exports from the "tight little isle"—manufactured goods of all kinds, coal,

cotton and linen, woolen goods, steel and iron in all forms, from needles to mowing-machines. On a short walk farther up in the city we soon see that while it is a busy place it is not an attractive one, and we are ready to leave its smoky atmosphere and set out for Chester, sixteen miles away. This is one of the oldest towns in England, and is almost entirely enclosed within an ancient red stone wall, dating from the Roman occupation. It has also a very old cathedral, and a church that dates from the fifth century. The principal streets show a curious architectural feature: in front of the second stories of the houses, which are used as shops, the space is formed into a covered way for foot-passengers. These queer promenades are called "The Rows," and are regarded with wonder by foreigners.

SHAKESPEARE'S BIRTHPLACE, STRATFORD-ON-AVON.

From Chester it is a pleasant journey to Stratford-on-Avon, the birthplace of the world's greatest poet and dramatist, Shakespeare. A dear, quaint old town is Stratford, and we cross with reverent step the threshold of the humble house where the great genius first saw the light. To the house, which is the property of the Government, has been added a Shakespeare library and museum. In the parish church are the ancient font in which Shakespeare was baptized, his grave, the old register showing the records of his birth and burial, and his portrait-bust. Apart from Shakespeare, the town is interesting to Americans as containing the early home of the mother of John Harvard, founder of America's first college.

Not far from Stratford are the ruins of one of England's famous old castles—Kenilworth, the scene of Scott's great novel of that name.

THE RURAL DISTRICTS.

Traveling northward from Stratford, one notices that the country seems fairly covered with a network

of iron tracks. There are so many railways in wealthy England that if the tracks were joined together they would reach almost round the world. The railway system is very fine; seldom do accidents occur, and the stations, large and small, are of stone, with neat gardens around them.

We admire the fine sheep and cattle grazing in the fields, of which we see great numbers as we fly across the well-cultivated country. England is famous all the world over for her fine beef and mutton. The farmhouses are neat and well-kept, though some are evidently very old and are overgrown with moss and ivy.

Here and there we see in the distance the towers of some dark and gloomy castle built in the Middle Ages, wherein dwelt some rich lord, with his train of servants and a band of soldiers to protect him. Again, we admire the more modern—and much more comfortable—mansion of some nobleman of today; with its park and gardens, lawns and conservatories. Unlike France and Belgium, where the farmers may own the land they live upon and cultivate, England is owned by a comparatively few wealthy persons, who rent their lands to farmers.

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES.

Once farming was a most important industry of the country. But now, although the land is still fertile, conditions have changed. The British market is the one open market in the world; the English farmer is competing with every country that has any agricultural produce to sell. His expenses have increased and labor has grown scarce, the manufacturing towns drawing away the most energetic of the workers. Even the proximity to towns, which should supply markets for his produce, is nullified by freight rates that are higher than those of competing countries. No country has larger manufactories, and England has the richest coal-fields in Europe. Many of the great fac-

TOMB OF HENRY IV, CANTERBURY.—In this tomb are buried Henry IV, who died 1413, and his Queen, who died 1437.

tories are built on or near these coal-fields, to save the expense of carrying fuel.

The large manufacturing cities are far from attractive to the eye, with their forests of immense smoke-stacks filling the air with the fumes of soft coal. In this respect they are all alike: Manchester, with its great cotton factories; Leeds, where every sort of woolen textile is made; Sheffield, which produces the famous Sheffield steel; Birmingham, the industrial center of middle England, where iron mines abound, and millions of needles, pins, screws, and nails are made every year.

CANTERBURY: THE RESORT, LONG AGO, OF PILGRIMS.

The traveler does not linger very long in these smoky, noisy towns, but seeks out historic spots "in a cleaner, greener land." In the county of Kent lies the ancient town of Canterbury, which boasts one of the glories in which England is rich—a splendid cathedral, which stands on the very spot where in the time of the Roman Christians a church had stood. It was attacked by the fierce Danes, and all the succeeding churches erected on the site suffered from fire. Then, in 1174, the cathedral of that day was burned to the ground. The present cathedral was begun at once, and was completed, two hundred years later, by the raising of the central tower. From this tower we gain a view that is connected with much of England's history: the ancient Britons toiled here, clad only in sheepskins, before Cæsar's army overran the land; here St. Augustine preached to King Ethelbert and made him a Christian. In the cathedral is the tomb of the pious Archbishop Thomas à Becket, who was cruelly murdered; and to this church, on one of the "Canterbury pilgrimages" so popular long ago, came Chaucer, England's first great poet, to visit the tomb of à Becket. The tomb in those days was covered with plates of gold, studded thickly with jewels, all of which

treasure was seized by Henry VIII at the time of the Reformation, when he broke away from the control of the pope and assumed the headship of the Protestant Church of England. Next to the King, the Archbishop of Canterbury is the head of this Church.

The other great monument here is the tomb of Edward the Black Prince, the boy fighter and victor at Crecy, who conquered and captured the French King. The effigy of the gallant monarch lies in full armor at the top of his tomb; above him hang his gloves, his velvet coat, and the empty scabbard of his sword. The cathedral is full of solemn beauty, and the houses round about possess a striking charm of seclusion and quaintness.

COVENTRY.

A visit to Coventry takes us back to the days of the feudal guilds and grand processions, and even today Coventry is very fond of having pageants and out-of-door shows. The story of Lady Godiva meets one everywhere—in street statues, in architectural decorations, and on signboards, though these figures do not suggest the sweet heroine of Tennyson's poem, who for the love she bore the poor,

> "took the tax away,
> And built herself an everlasting name."

STOKE POGIS, AND ITS "COUNTRY CHURCHYARD."

Among the minor but always interesting attractions of rural England, is the town of Stoke Pogis, which contains the famous "Country Churchyard," where Thomas Gray composed his wonderful "Elegy," the lines in which are more quoted than those of any other English poem. It is a humble churchyard; the ancient church is "ivy-mantled"; the "rugged elms" and the "yew-trees' shade" spread their shadows over many a "heaving turf." We come to the poet's own grave; a stone under the window of one of the gable ends of the Church bears an inscription to his memory.

HAMPTON COURT.

Another celebrated place, not far from London, is Hampton Court, built by the ambitious Cardinal Wolsey, whose regal tastes found expression in this superb palace where, from having been a simple tutor in a nobleman's family, he had bishops to wait upon him and the first aristocrats of England to hand him his napkin and fill his glass at dinner. Had he been true to his royal master, Henry VIII, he would have kept his power to the end of his days. We approach the majestic palace and pass through four courtyards before actually entering it. The first court was Wolsey's, the second that of Henry VIII, the third of William III, and the fourth of George II. Many of the suites of apartments are now occupied by persons of rank in reduced circumstances. One room is filled with portraits of the court beauties of the time of Charles II, painted by the celebrated Sir Peter Lely; another contains the portraits of Henry VIII and all six of the unfortunate ladies who became his wives. The most precious art treasure, however, is a collection of seven unequaled cartoons by Raphael.

Its garden is the glory of Hampton Court, with its sparkling fountains, its great variety of rare roses, its lovely lawns—all as fresh and neat as if fairies had shaved the grass and polished the leaves.

RUGBY, WHERE THERE IS A FAMOUS SCHOOL.

A little less than a hundred miles from London is the town of Rugby, the scene of that story by Thomas Hughes which is a high favorite with boys, *Tom Brown's School-days.* The celebrated school, one of several similar institutions in which English youth are educated, is the only attraction of the otherwise dull little town. Its castle-like walls loom large over everything else; its army of boys and teachers outnumber all the other inhabitants. The school was

founded in the time of Queen Elizabeth; the buildings are in the square Gothic style, with a turreted tower, gateway and handsome chapel, and a cloistered quadrangle. Recollection of "Brown" and "little Arthur" and the delightful headmaster, Dr. Thomas Arnold, are all over the place, which bears evidence of centuries of rough occupancy by school-boys. The schools of Eton and Harrow are attended by boys of the upper classes; Rugby is patronized by the middle class, and in manliness, morals, and scholarship no English schoolboys rank higher.

Not far from Rugby is Bilton Hall, the home of Joseph Addison, the essayist, editor of *The Spectator,* the most elegant and famous periodical ever issued. Visitors at the large old-fashioned house are shown the very table at which he wrote the wise and witty sayings of the charming "Sir Roger de Coverley."

THE BEAUTIFUL CATHEDRALS OF ENGLAND.

There are twenty-nine cathedrals in England, the more noted or which, after Canterbury, are Gloucester, Lichfield, Lincoln, Peterboro, Rochester, St. Paul's, Westminster, Worcester, and York. They are the pride of Englishmen, and are their "golden mile-posts" on the road to eternity. Indeed, the repose of eternity seems to sleep in their shadowy silence. Some of the decorations in the more ancient cathedrals are very curious; their columns and pillars are ornamented with carved birds' nests with birds setting in them, or a monstrous lizard or a dragon twines round a marble column, while at its top imps and human faces and figures appear, weirdly distorted or in undignified attitudes.

Gloucester Cathedral is in the ancient city where Edward the Confessor lived and Henry III was crowned; here, too, dwelt Richard III, the cruel Duke of Gloucester.

In Worcester Cathedral is the tomb of King John,

who was forced to give freedom to the English people. This tomb was opened in the nineteenth century, and the King's dress was found perfectly preserved and exactly as it was carved on his monument.

A sleepy, aristocratic old town is Lichfield, proud of its cathedral and of having been the birthplace of the renowned Dr. Samuel Johnson, the dictionary-maker and author of the romance of *Rasselas*. The cathedral contains a superb west window, and richly canopied arches. The doors are as sumptuously wrought as the entrance to a Moorish mosque. Within, the silent figures of martyrs, saints, and heroes lie upon their tombs, in a glory of gold and crimson light from the great windows. From the cathedral one looks down into Stow Valley, and in the little village of Stow stands a monument to the great lexicographer, facing the house where he was born and lived. Next door to the house is the inn where the Doctor and his tireless biographer, Mr. Boswell, had many of their famous conversations.

A REGION OF LEGEND.

The legendary part of Old England is found in Somersetshire, southwest of Gloucester, in the region about Glastonbury. Here is the seat of the earliest traditions of the English Church, dating almost from the days of the Apostles. With these legends are blended the armed and heroic figures of King Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table. It is a beautiful region; as Tennyson said of it:

> "it lies
> Deep-meadowed, happy, fair with orchard-lawns,
> And bowery hollows, crowned with summer sea."

To this peaceful haven King Arthur was borne after his grievous wound, and the legend has it that here he will again appear among men, for the glory of his native land.

It is said that a company of pilgrims, led by Joseph

of Arimathea, journeying south from their landing-place in Wales, stopped here and founded a religious community, and converted to Christianity a great number of the pagan Britons. Joseph planted his staff here, in token of permanent settlement, and it took root, budded and blossomed. Visitors are shown stocks descended from Joseph's "holy thorn," which, curiously enough, blossom annually in the midst of winter snows.

Succeeding the huts of these first missionaries, and rude Saxon buildings, at length arose a great abbey, one of the most complete, wealthy, and famous in England. Glastonbury Abbey is awe-inspiring even in the ruins of its massive grandeur. Many kings were buried here, among them the great King Arthur himself, according to an old-time chronicler.

HISTORIC YORKSHIRE.

Yorkshire may be called the Empire State of England. In size, fertility, manufactures, population, grand estates, beauty, and historic interest, it is the queen of English counties.

The capital city of York, where one Roman Emperor was born and another was buried, and where Constantine the Great was proclaimed Emperor, is one of the most ancient of British cities. The first metropolitan church in England was built here in the eighth century and here was held the first English parliament in 1160. The church, destroyed by fire, was rebuilt, enlarged and altered from time to time and today, known as York Minster, is the most imposing cathedral in England and one of the finest specimens of Gothic architecture in the world, with superb windows glowing as if studded with jewels.

SCROOBY, THE HOME OF THE PILGRIM FATHERS.

Just at the junction of Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, and Lincolnshire, in the county of Nottingham, lies

the little village of Scrooby, of more interest to Americans than all the Roman walls and forts that we may see. A little patience and a good bit of walking over marshy ground brings us to a solitary farmhouse with a red-tiled roof, back of which stands a little thicket of poplars and part of a deep ditch, originally one of the moats with which castles were surrounded for protection in the old days.

The palace that once stood on this spot belonged to Cardinal Wolsey, but came into the possession of Archbishop Sandys in 1576; he gave it to his son, under whom, in the manor-house belonging to the palace, lived a thoughtful, earnest man named William Brewster. The palace has entirely disappeared, although a mulberry tree planted by Wolsey is still standing, and in the barn adjoining the farmhouse some elaborately carved woodwork and ornamental beams are all that is left of the house where Elder Brewster once gathered about him his humble friends to follow a simpler form of worship than that prescribed by the Church of England. Brewster's little company, joined by William Bradford (afterward the second Governor of the Plymouth Colony in Massachusetts) met here for worship until they left England in a body to find freedom of religious thought in Holland. They organized themselves as a church in 1602, with settlements in Amsterdam and Leyden. It was these people of the original Scrooby congregation that met in this lonely place, who formed the principal part of the one hundred souls who returned to England in the *Speedwell* and finally set sail for America in the *Mayflower*. Many others followed them for conscience' sake; but the Scrooby people were the real Pilgrim Fathers, the Puritans of the Puritans. In looking at the remains of the old manor-house, standing in the midst of these flat, desolate marshes, and at this poor, obscure village, sunk in rustic dullness, and in reflecting on what came out of this humble place, one

has strange feelings. Storied "Alba Longa," from which Rome sprang, is an interesting spot, but the spiritual birthplace of America may excite deeper emotion.

ENGLAND'S UNIVERSITIES.

The universities of Oxford and Cambridge are wonderfully well matched as to their historical interest, in the number of great Englishmen that have been their students, in size, and in picturesque beauty of buildings. Oxford, as a city, has some advantages over Cambridge, and its world-famed High Street is unrivaled. But there are points in Cambridge more striking than anything in Oxford—for instance, the majestic King's College Chapel and the beautiful grounds behind Trinity College. The old college of Cambridge University is St. Peter's, established in 1257. We Americans speak of "Old Yale," and "Old Harvard," but when we enter the portals of a college that dates from the time of the Crusades, when much of Europe as well as Asia was in heathen darkness, we feel that our colleges are but wild young children of the forest.

In two or three of the colleges of Cambridge University we find records of the leaders of the Puritans. The Rev. John Robinson, Elder Brewster, and John Cotton were educated at Cambridge.

In the garden of Christ's College stands the famous mulberry tree that was planted by Milton, the great poet. It is still hardy, though carefully propped up, and its venerable trunk is sheathed with lead. It is curious that Cambridge has produced most of England's great poets. Besides Milton, Cambridge boasts Spenser, Gray, Byron, Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Tennyson.

Commemoration Day at Oxford is an annual gathering to commemorate the founders and benefactors of the university, and it is the great day of

the college year. The beautiful old town is filled with visitors; and the wide, half-rustic street is full of bustle. The shovel-crowned Oxford caps and billowing black silk gowns of the college boys flutter to and fro; ladies are hurrying to secure good places in the "theater" on Broad Street, to listen to the speeches; and groups of elderly, dignified university magnates are collecting their forces. A great racket comes from within the theater, where hundreds of lively, impatient boys are waiting. Presently the public is admitted to a high-ceiled circular auditorium, in which the youths are clustered like a swarm of bees, tier upon tier, in the upper galleries. The ladies take seats in the lower gallery.

Then the regents, doctors, professors, and officials of all degrees enter and take their seats on a lower circle of the proscenium. A strange scene usually follows. The boys are allowed on this occasion to do and say almost anything they please, and the hall of the university, founded by Alfred the Great, is filled for a time with braying, crowing, squeaking, laughing, groaning for unpopular persons, hurrahs for favorites, and a general uproar. After a few minutes of this Babel, endured with grim patience by the dignified instructors, quiet settles down, and the exercises begin. The boys have their most enjoyable fun when a famous man appears, to receive the degree of D.C.L. For Oliver Wendell Holmes they sang out "Holmes, sweet Holmes," and Tennyson they asked, "Did your mother call you early, Alfred, dear?"

The Sheldoman Theater forms one of a group of grand old edifices made up of the schools, the Bodleian Library, the Radcliffe Library, and Christ Church, which are the heart and center of the university.

Oriel, Dr. Arnold's college, is the oldest looking of all Oxford's buildings, which, taken together, form a monumental history of England, marking her historic epochs. Even the sombre influence of Spain may be traced in their architecture.

At Queen's College every Christmas a great boar's head is roasted and served up, in memory of a student who once escaped from the attack of a wild boar by thrusting a volume of Aristotle down the animal's throat. The gallant soldier, King Henry V, was educated here.

The city of Oxford contains another spot compared with which all the university buildings are of small account—the Martyrs' Memorial, erected over the spot where the three chief martyrs of the Reformation suffered—Bishops Cranmer, Latimer, and Ridley. This beautiful monument marks the spiritual center of England. Through the fearless, dauntless constancy of these men we now enjoy a pure faith and may read a free Bible.

DOVER AND THE ROMAN ROAD.

In the neighborhood of Dover, on the eastern coast, began that famous Roman road which the traveler often comes across in the midland counties. It ran through Kent, over the Thames by London; along the river Severn to Worcester, then through Wales. Do nothing by halves, was the Roman motto. One gets an overwhelming idea of the power of ancient Rome on finding her roads, viaducts, bridges, baths, citadels, standing as they have stood for centuries in the midst of totally different countries, far from Rome—in England, Germany, Syria, and Africa.

Dover holds a distinguished place in English history, but is not now especially interesting except for its castle, covering thirty-five acres, and as being the great port of outlet to the continent of Europe. These great, white, chalk cliffs, covered with fierce barbarians, must have presented a formidable sight to Cæsar's legions in their galleys, as they sailed slowly toward them. From the top of the cliff we can see the coast of France. The time was when this rich and powerful England was regarded by the Norman

kings across this stretch of water as a mere appendage to their land, twenty-one miles away.

SALISBURY—STONEHENGE.

In Wiltshire is old Salisbury, in the center of a very interesting region. The houses are extremely ancient, with black, thatched roofs, so humped and undulating from age that they look like elephants' backs. The old cathedral is its chief attraction, as well as its picturesque "close"—the enclosure that shuts in all the dwellings of the clergy attached to the cathedral. These closes are found in every cathedral town, and indicate the former magnificence of the Church, taking the lion's share of the best land in the city. The cathedral is an awe-inspiring structure, with an eight-sided spire of great beauty, the highest in England, four hundred feet. Its first stone was laid in 1220. On both sides of the splendid nave lie the effigies of many of the brave heroes of the Crusades in the Holy Land, with their own broad shields on their breasts.

Not far from Salisbury is one of the most mysterious spots in the world—Stonehenge. We have read of one other in France similar to it, Carnac, of the mystic monuments. Many are the theories of scholars regarding Stonehenge, but when we learn who sculptured the Sphinx in Egypt we may know who constructed this strange circle in Salisbury Plain. There is a gradual ascent to it on all sides, and as we approach the temple (if temple it be) the plain is filled with green circles and long hillocks, as if many persons had been buried here. Some of these mounds have been opened, and they showed evidences of having been graves.

"Stonehenge" is a Saxon word, meaning "hanging stone," which describes the blocks of stone placed crosswise upon other perpendicular stones. These stones form a circle within a circle. First there is an

outer trench three hundred and sixty-nine yards around; then a circle of sixty stones, then a second circle of thirty smaller stones; then two ovals of huge upright stones, the inner oval containing the altar-stone, a block of hard gray marble. The stones bear the mark of chisel and hammer, and in their mathematical plan show the thoughtful work of a rough, strong people. But where did these huge masses come from in that stoneless plain, how were they brought there, and for what purpose? No man knows.

WESSEX.

In the southwestern part of England lies the region in which the first king, Egbert, established the West Saxon supremacy, the kingdom, in the time of Alfred the Great, being called Wessex, which eventually ruled over the whole of England. Later, this territory was divided into several counties, under different names, although the old name of Wessex is still used unofficially to designate that region. Much of it is a land of downs and dales, and long stretches of fertile soil. But the "downs" of which we read so much in stories of England life, are lonely, uninhabited places, for the reason that they have no water—no wells, brooks, rivers, lakes. Even the frequent rain cannot be made to serve any purpose of man, for the soil hereabouts is so chalky and porous that the rain sinks into it as soon as it falls. Broad heaths, too, are another feature of this part of the country—great tracts of land covered with evergreen trees and heath, and as lonely as the downs. But in the neighborhood of these deserted regions, wherever water is found, one always sees pretty towns and hamlets.

In several counties the raising of hops is an important industry. The English are great beer-drinkers, and the necessary hops for its decocting come from these counties. No prettier sight is found in England than the hop-gardens, with their festooned vines. In

harvest time the whole countryside turns out, in a sort of grand gypsy picnic, to gather the hops. The people look very much like American farmers, as why should they not, with the same language and ancestry? The boys and girls are sturdier and have rosier cheeks than their American cousins, and nearly all those of the farming class speak, read, and write quite as well, for education is compulsory.

PLYMOUTH.

Plymouth, a name dear to Americans, has much charm and beauty of its own. The bay is the most noble and beautiful of all English harbors, and forth from it, upon a cool, fresh autumn day, with the waves rippling merrily, just as they do today, sailed the little ship *Mayflower,* with her devoted band of pilgrims to the New World, bearing another England with them. At the mouth of the harbor stretches the Plymouth breakwater, which receives the full force of the stormy Atlantic; and fourteen miles out at sea we can just discern the tall form of the Eddystone Lighthouse.

CORNWALL, WHICH SUPPLIES US WITH TIN.

The county of Cornwall has been perhaps less known by visitors than any other in England. And yet it is an interesting region, wild and strange, and, in the mining districts, quite unlike the rest of England. At Lostwithiel we begin to see traces of that vast system of underground industry which transforms this part of England into a solemn, artificially lighted hive or prison. We visit the famous Carclaze tin-mine, which is an out-of-door mine, a unique spectacle. The ore is obtained simply by washing, and this mine has been worked for four hundred years, an incredible amount of tin having been taken from it. Tin is found in other parts of the world, but the grand source of it is in Cornwall. Most of the bright tin pans found in America's country stores and in the hardware de-

partments of city stores, were once hundreds of fathoms deep and dark under the hills of Cornwall. In the ore, tin is far from bright and glittering. It has to be crushed, stamped, rolled, and undergo several other processes before it comes out a shining sheet. After we have inspected some of these processes in the smelting-works the usual treat to visitors is offered to us—a beefsteak cooked on a red-hot bar of tin.

The life of the miner in either the tin mines or those of copper, which also abound in this region, is not to be envied. He works in awful silence in the depths of the ground; his life is in continual peril, and when he comes up to earth's surface the keen wind seems to cut through his body. Yet the Cornish miners are, strangely enough, a contented people, and seldom are there any "strikes" among them.

Truro, the chief city of Cornwall, is in the copper-mining district, where the scenery is savagely bleak and barren. The landscape shows a continued series of poisonous-looking heaps of the refuse from the mines, and outside of the town few signs of life are seen, for the life is nearly all underground.

From Redruth, the next important town in Cornwall, the railway passes St. Ives's Bay, at Hayle. St. Ives is a very lively place once a year when the little fish called "pilchards" swarm up from the southern seas to the coast of Cornwall, which they seem to have a special liking for, since they are seldom seen elsewhere. When they arrive in vast shoals, darkening the waters with their numbers, eager, joyous crowds of men and women, boys and girls are awaiting them, and they are speedily caught in great seines, which are set in the water like walls across the drift of the tide. As soon as night falls the fish thrust their heads through the meshes of the net and are caught by the gills. These are taken out in the morning, dried and salted, and are mostly sent to the south of Europe,

where they are a common food. The pilchard is somewhat smaller than a herring, and is not so agreeable in flavor.

It is curious to observe how slender the neck of England is in this place; we can almost see across it. We are approaching Land's End. This part of England has a soft climate, especially in Penzance, where many flowers of southern Europe flourish.

The oldest town in Cornwall is Marazion, where tin-mines were worked in the time of King John. Just opposite is St. Michael's Mount, called the earliest historic spot in England, described very particularly by Diodorus, a writer in the time of the Emperor Augustus of Rome. It is the link that connected early Britain with the civilization of Rome and the East.

On the way to Land's End we pass another of those mystic Druidic circles of stone. This is called the "Merry Maidens and the Piper"—sixteen gray stones ranged in a circle. It is said that they were once a gay group of Cornish girls, who were turned to stone for dancing on Sunday! Cornwall is full of these old circles; it is the land of pagan legend and mystery.

The nearer we get to the point of the coast the wilder grows the scenery. Presently we come upon a gloomy old stone house facing the ocean. On one side of it is written "The Last Inn in England." We walk around it, and on the other side the facetious owner of the building has inscribed "The First Inn in England." Still we push on, in the face of the high wind that never ceases to blow here, and finally we behold what is actually the last house in England, a lonely building standing on one side of the promontory overlooking the sea. Clinging to the cliffs, down we go, until we reach a mass of rock, beyond which is nothing but the foaming abyss of the Atlantic Ocean. Above us are the dark fronts of granite cliffs, rising like columns, as if they were the giant guards of England, stationed there to ward off the shock of tempests. The boiling waters dash madly against them; but there

have these guardians stood for centuries, and there will they stand for centuries to come, to watch over the most powerful kingdom in the world—grand Old England.

ONE OF THE MOST BEAUTIFUL SPOTS ON THE EARTH.

Loveliness alternated by grandeur are the distinctive features of the northwestern part of England where lie the celebrated lakes, beloved by poets, visited every year by countless tourists, peaceful spots to which many an Englishman flees when he wishes to get away from the cares of life and "to loaf and invite his soul."

Among the wild and rugged heights of the group of mountains called Cumbrian, these beautiful lakes extend their silvery length. As we travel through a gloomy pass, noticing deep clefts through which dark torrents of water dash in never-ceasing cascades, the scene appears desolate and repelling, until suddenly we begin to descend a steady slope to level ground, and in another moment our eyes are enchanted by the smiling landscape before us.

WINDERMERE.

Here is a peaceful valley, sheltered by hills, with velvetry green meadows, where soft-eyed, fawn-colored Jersey cattle are grazing; here and there are picturesque stone cottages, overrun with vines and roses, through the diamond-shaped panes of whose windows the fresh-colored faces of maids and matrons peep at us as we pass. The tumultuous torrent we left behind us has subsided into a deep, rippling brook, which grows wider and runs faster until it flows into an exquisite blue lake, with drooping trees and charming hamlets bordering its shores, which at every curve present some fresh beauty to those that take the steamer and go out upon its waters. This is Lake Windermere, which, like a river, winds northward

its length of eleven miles, until it is enclosed by high hills, mirrored in its silvery surface.

Northward the scenery changes to a grander type. At some points the steep mountains, springing from the very sides of the lake, appear to be hanging over it; elsewhere flower-dotted plains and cool green woodlands border its banks.

A POET'S HOME.

Stopping at Ambleside, we find that the best way to view the country is to go from this point along the Rydal Road to Grasmere, where we see the charming residence called Rydal Mount, so long the home of Wordsworth, once England's poet-laureate. Passing along by Rydal Water, we come to the spot in Townsend, Grasmere, where this best beloved of the "lake poets" lived, at the "lovely cottage in the guardian nook" before he moved to Rydal Mount. Not far away is the old churchyard, where the poet's grave appropriately lies near the rippling Rothsay, of which he was so fond.

On leaving Grasmere, which takes its name from the numerous little lakes (or "meres") set like jewels in the emerald plains, a steady climb up the steep and rocky Pass of Dunmail brings us to a mass of heavy stones at the top, the Cairn of Dunmail, beneath which are supposed to lie the bones of Dunmail, the last king of Cumbria.

OTHER LOVELY LAKES.

After crossing the Dunmail Raise, as it is called, we soon behold the Lake of Thirlmere, whose shores present a striking contrast to those of Windermere, for instead of having pretty cottages and boathouses on its banks, and excursion steamers and rowboats on its waters, no signs of human activity are visible—nothing but a long, lonely expanse of water. The reason for this is that Thirlmere is not only a lake,

but a reservoir which sends drinking-water to the great city of Manchester, ninety miles away. In order to keep the water pure, all the land around the lake has been bought up and cleared of dwellings. No one is allowed even to approach the lakeside, whose placid waters are backed by the mounts of Helvellyn, Saddleback, and Skiddaw.

Pursuing our way through this lovely country, we arrive at Derwentwater, in Keswick, home of another poet-laureate, Robert Southey, whose poem "How the Water Comes Down at Lodore" was written of the Falls of Lodore, which are found near one of the pretty islands in the splendid lake. At Keswick, too, dwelt that strange genius, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, brother-in-law of Southey and author of the "Rime of the Ancient Mariner."

A few miles south of Ambleside is a group of mountains, among which is a tall peak on which stands out in the rugged stone a wonderful resemblance to a human head, giving the name of Coniston Old Man to this famous peak. Near the foot of these mountains lies the beautiful lake known as Coniston Water, on whose shores is the charming home, called Brantwood, where the great English writer, John Ruskin, passed the latter part of his life.

These are a few of the "beauty-spots" of Cumberland, one of the fairest counties of England; but in this region many other smaller but not less lovely lakes are found, and a visitor to this enchanting domain will find that the memory of it will become part of his dreams.

France.

THE charms of scenery, climate, and historic places of La Belle France have for many centuries attracted men of all nations to her bright towns and smiling fields. Lord Macaulay, one of Eng-

land's greatest men, once wrote of this joyous land, England's nearest neighbor:

> "Now let there be the merry sound of
> music and of dance,
> Through thy cornfields green and
> sunny vines,
> O pleasant land of France!"

The Channel, the Strait of Dover, and the North Sea form the northern boundary of France; the Atlantic Ocean bounds it on the west; the great wall of the Pyrenees separates it from Spain on the South, and the greater barrier of the Alps shuts it off from Switzerland on the east; while the Mediterranean Sea runs up to its southeastern border. France covers an area of 207,054 square miles, including the island of Corsica at the southeast.

Besides the mountain ranges of the Alps and the Pyrenees, France has other mountain chains; the Vosges, running north and south for 161 miles, and the Jura, beginning in France and extending toward Switzerland 186 miles.

The country is well supplied with navigable streams, having two hundred of these, chief among which are the Seine, which waters Rouen and Havre, the Loire, the Meuse, and the Rhone.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS.

Besides Corsica, France has annexed, in Africa, Algeria, and has under her protection the countries of Tunis, Senegal, French Guinea, and other large tracts in Africa; she controls Madagascar (with its islands); islands and towns near the entrance of the Red Sea; and in Asia she rules over five large cities in Hindustan, Cochin-China and Tonquin, Annam and Cambodia, in Indo-China; besides possessions in Oceanica, South America, and the West Indies. The total area of all these territories belonging to or under the protection of the Republic of France is 2,814,988

square miles, and they contain more than 30,000,000 inhabitants.

HISTORY.

This beautiful country acquired the name of France in the fifth century. In ancient times it was known as Gaul, and had been inhabited by the barbarous people who were conquered by Julius Cæsar a little more than fifty years before the birth of Christ. These fierce Gauls were gradually tamed and civilized, and after a time adopted Roman law and religion. But in the fifth century the Roman empire had grown so large that it could not or did not defend its frontier at all points, so tribes of barbarians invaded Gaul, the Visigoths settling in the southern part, Burgundians in the eastern, while Clovis, chief of a tribe called Franks, took possession of the whole northern part of the country as far as the river Loire. After a while Clovis drove out the Visigoths and took their lands also. He was converted to Christianity in 496, and thereby gained the good will of the priesthood of the Gallic-Roman natives. At his death he had succeeded in consolidating Gaul into the empire of Franks (or France), mentioned as such for the first time in history in records of the ninth century, and had become the supreme power in the north.

The monarchy continued to flourish until, under Charlemagne, it became the most powerful empire of the west. This remarkable ruler was centuries ahead of his times in enlightenment and in the liberality of his views. He accorded civil rights to his subjects, limiting, by their assemblies, the power of the central government. Under his protection civilization advanced greatly. He zealously encouraged Christianity, education, the arts, and commerce, and projected great public works. He extended the empire from the Eider and the German Ocean to the Ebro and the Mediterranean, and from the Atlantic to the Baltic. His fame

became world-wide, and in 800 he was crowned by the Pope as Emperor of the Romans. But with his death (814) the greatness of his dynasty terminated.

The fusion of the conquering barbarians with the population of the Romanized provinces in the ninth century resulted gradually in the social condition which we call feudalism. But the great warrior-barons who flourished under this system of society, in the course of time, grew arrogant and reckless. They oppressed the people; they defied the king. But in spite of this, the people grew, during the centuries, in wealth and importance, especially in the cities, and the king in almost every European state gradually allied himself with these powerful town communities and brought the lords into subjection. After the thirteenth century, therefore, the supreme, executive power was in the hands of the monarch.

The feudal lords, reigning over their own lands, were gradually merged into a court nobility, upholding the king in all things; and this change of the feudal aristocracy into an absolute monarchy was the seed from which all France's later troubles sprang. War followed war over disputed territory, chiefly with England and Austria; internal struggles over differences in matters of religion brought much trouble to the French people; thousands of the most intelligent and industrious inhabitants left the country between 1685 and 1785, thus throwing upon the people that remained in the country the heavy burden of taxes necessary to maintain the magnificence of an extravagant king and his court.

THE REVOLUTION—THE RISE OF THE REPUBLIC.

Brilliant writers of this period, recognizing the evil, published bitter criticisms of the heedless monarch and his nobles, stirring the starving people to revolt. The widespread misery, unrest, and indignation culminated in the terrible revolution of 1793.

After a time this reign of blood and terror passed, and the public disorder resulting from it was subdued and mastered by the young general, Napoleon Bonaparte, who afterward became emperor, giving the country the most brilliant reign in its history, from 1804 to the time of his abdication in 1814. Three more kings followed him, two of the old House of Bourbon; then Louis Philippe, of the House of Orleans; followed by Napoleon's nephew, Louis Napoleon, who established the Second Empire as Napoleon III in 1851, and reigned until 1870.

Then, after a disastrous war with Germany, he was deposed and the republic was established, which exists today. It is governed by a president, a senate, and a chamber of deputies similar to the United States House of Representatives. More detail concerning the government of France will be found in Volume III.

PEOPLE AND PRODUCTIONS.

The population of France at the end of the first ten years of the twentieth century was nearly 39,000,000; and, because of her numerous ports, her coal-mines, the great water-power derived from her many rivers, her warm climate, and vast vineyards, producing the finest wines in the world, and her great silk-weaving and porcelain industries, she is one of the richest countries in Europe, as well as one of the pleasantest and happiest. The land is divided in a political sense into thirty-seven provinces, each of which has its own departments, towns, and a capital city. Some of these provinces are more interesting than others, and among the most attractive are Normandy, Touraine, Brittany, and Gascony.

ROUEN.

The capital city of Normandy is Rouen. Along the quays of its fine harbor, and the boulevards that have been built on the site of the city's ancient ramparts, we see everywhere signs of busy modern life; but in

NAPOLEON'S STATE CARRIAGE.

This gorgeous coach was used by the Emperor Napoleon I on great occasions of state. In it he rode with the Empress Marie Louise to the Cathedral of Notre Dame where their marriage was to be solemnized. The entire framework is overlaid with gold and the interior decorations are equally splendid. The carriage is now preserved, with many other relics of royalty, at Versailles.

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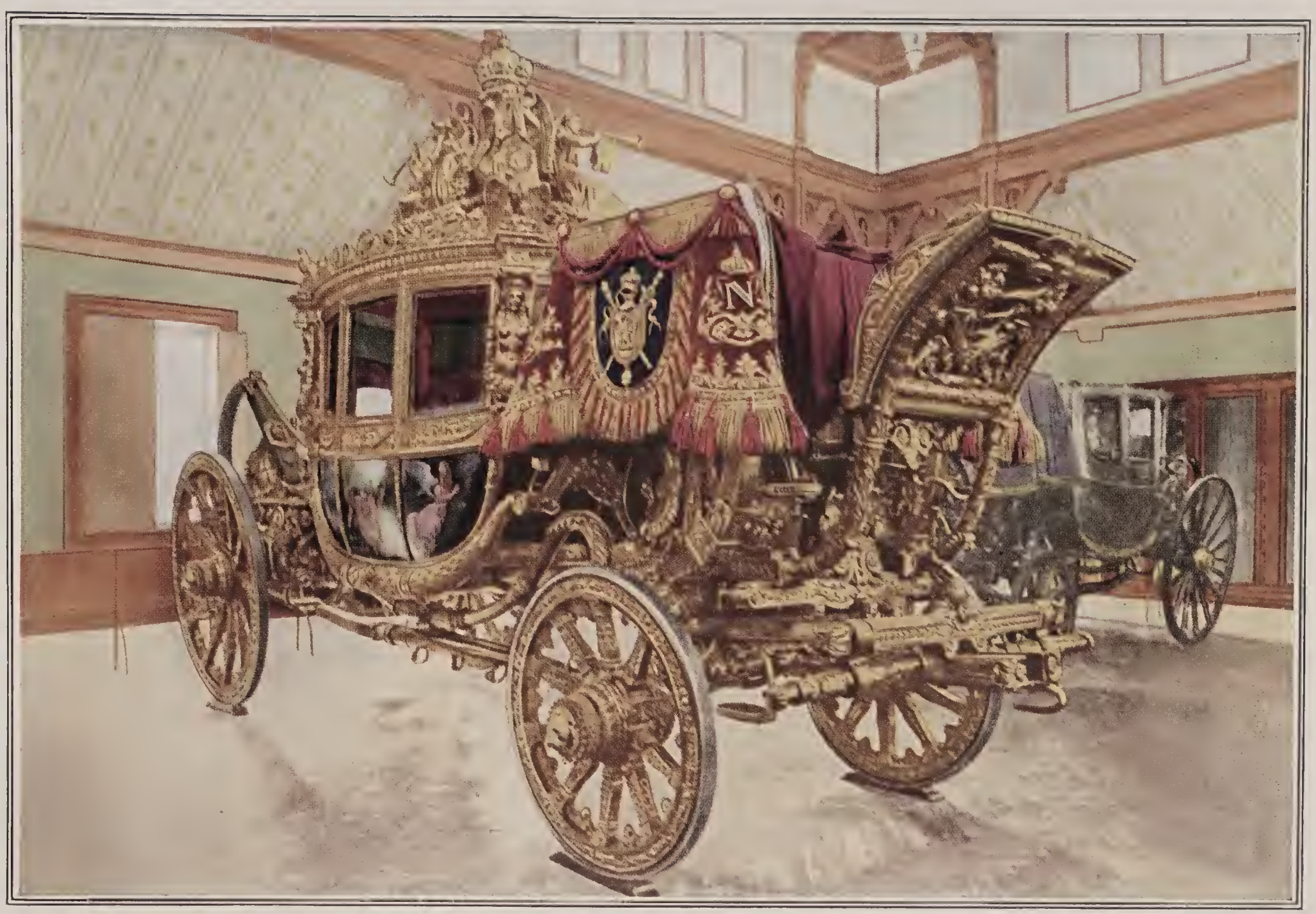
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the heart of the town we find traces and relics of the romantic past. Here is the beautiful Gothic cathedral, built in the eleventh century, with its graceful tower and spire, 470 feet high, whose historic walls shelter the tomb of Richard I, King of England, called the Lion-hearted, hero of the Crusades and of countless romantic tales.

A handsome square contains a fine monument to Corneille, one of France's great writers. But the name of this square is sadly significant—the Place de la Pucelle (the Maid)—for here was burned to death, in 1431, the heroic maiden, Joan of Arc.

TOURS.

The whole of Touraine, called the garden of France, is a region so charming as to cause Balzac, the great French novelist, who was born in Tours, to say that no native of it will make an effort to go anywhere else, even in search of pleasure, since he knows that he would lose by almost any change; he lives in a delightful climate, on the banks of the beautiful river Loire, surrounded by vineyards and orchards; and the capital city, Tours, is so full of fine old tradition and history that he need not look elsewhere for romance. The beautiful Cathedral of Tours, and the churches of St. Martin and St. Julian, contain exquisite sculpture and glorious windows of richest stained glass. But all Touraine is rich in historical associations. But a few miles from the capital is the town of Blois, whose chief glory is its old castle, the Chateau de Blois, one of the most imposing of all the old royal residences. Louis XIV was born here, and under its roof kings and queens have been married. It was the scene of the gaities of that merry monarch Francis I, who added to the original structure a wing that is one of the most beautiful specimens of the French Renaissance in architectural art. In the middle of this wing rises a famous winding staircase, every inch of which is

covered with wonderful carving. Within the walls of this palace Henri, Duke of Guise, was murdered by assassins hired by the wicked Catherine de Medici, mother of the reigning king, Henri III.

In the midst of a great walled park, about twelve miles from Blois, is the famous royal residence the Chateau de Chambord. This building marks the transition between the fortified castle and the Italian palace and is said to have been built by the gallant Francis I as a compliment to a lady he admired; a distinguished English writer has called it "the most massive of momentoes." But it was built as a sort of monument to the pride that tried to dazzle itself and others in order to induce forgetfulness of humiliating defeat, for it was begun after Francis returned from his year's imprisonment in Spain, following his capture by the Spanish king at the battle of Pavia.

A PECULIAR PALACE.

This picturesque monarch seemed to have had a fancy for curious staircases; in the palace of Chambord is an elaborately carved double spiral staircase of great architectural interest rising in the middle of the building, it is two hundred feet high, and its two flights of steps wind about each other so ingeniously that persons may pass up and down without meeting. Louis XIV tore away part of this wonderful structure, in order to make three floors out of one; but it has been carefully restored. The whole outside effect of this immense building, with its prodigious round towers, its turrets, cupolas, and gables, is that of a little crowded city rather than of a single structure. But it is certainly royal in its grand scale, in its magnificent air of aloofness.

AMBOISE.

Halfway between Blois and Tours is the town of Amboise, whose famous Chateau dominates the place,

looking down at the houses that seem to lie at its feet like pebbles at the foot of a rock. In the chapel of the castle is a marvelous piece of sculpture depicting the hunting adventures of St. Hubert. The great feature of this castle is its tremendous round tower, the size of a fortress in itself, whose curiosity in the way of a staircase is not a staircase at all, but an inclined plane in the middle of the tower, the slope of which is so wide and gradual that a carriage and four horses could drive to its top.

Mary Stuart (afterward Queen of Scots) here spent the early days of her marriage with the French king Francis II. The story goes that she and her terrible mother-in-law, Marie de Medici, looked out of its windows at the drowning of the persecuted Huguenots in the river Loire. The town of Amboise witnessed the first outbreak of those terrible religious wars which devastated France in the sixteenth century and where the word "Huguenot" was first applied to a protestant.

Perhaps the most romantic of all these royal palaces of Touraine is Chenonceaux, not far from Tours; it is not large, but is of exquisitely delicate architectural beauty, and within its walls are packed volumes of romance, for it belonged first to Francis I and then to Henri II. An odd feature of its architecture is the remarkable structure forming part of it which crosses the river Cher; it looks like a huge bridge, but is in reality a long, two-storied gallery, from the windows of which charming views of the river pleased the eye of its designer, Queen Marie de Medici, who liked to enjoy the pleasant things of life herself, though she seemed to be unwilling that anyone else should do so.

BRITTANY.

In Brittany we find almost unchanged by modern progress many of the quaint old towns and villages characteristic for centuries of this quarter of France. The people cling tenaciously to the customs and dress

and to the speech of their forefathers, a dialect resembling that of the Welsh, from whom, in fact, they are descended. The costume of the women is rendered quaint by their starched white caps, each style of cap being distinctive of the province in which it is worn. The Briton possesses the imaginative temperament, tinged with melancholy, peculiar to the Celt, often concealed beneath a stolid exterior. In features, also, the Brittany folks are Celtic to a marked degree.

The fisher-folk of both Normandy and Brittany keep themselves apart and seldom marry out of their own class. The girls see the gay toilets of visitors but make no attempt to imitate them; they continue to wear the dress their mothers wore, which their daughters will wear after them. Some of those today, however, who find their way to Paris to seek service return home with their dress somewhat modified, but still clinging to the headdress. The fascination of the foreigners' gay, idle life makes no mark, except to make the Bretons more eager to gain some of their money. In common with the peasant class throughout France, the saving of money with these people is a science and an art. In fact, excessive economy and thrift amounting to parsimony are characteristic not only of the peasant class but in some degree of the middle class as well; this is a national trait.

Brittany abounds in ancient monuments belonging to pagan times. In Carnac, in a vast open space, are set about one thousand stones or more, in eleven parallel rows, forming ten avenues miles long from east to west; at one end is a curved row of eighteen stones, the extremities of which touch the outer horizontal rows; some of these broken obelisks, called *Menhirs*, are eighteen feet high, but they diminish in size as they recede from the ocean. Various legends are connected with this strange monument; one story has it that a saint, pursued by soldiers, called upon Heaven to turn them into stone, and forthwith the soldiers were petri-

fied. Another idea of the sixteenth century was that the stones set in long rows covered the bodies of men who had died in duels, and that those in squares (called dolmens) were in honor of heroes who had died in battle. The origin and purpose of the monument still remain unsolved, whether they were Celtic or pre-Celtic, religious or military in design.

NANTES.

The city of Nantes, where Henri II signed the Edict, which allowed freedom of religious thought throughout the kingdom, but which was afterward revoked by Louis XIV, stands at the mouth of the river Loire, and is a busy, modern-looking town, though it once witnessed the horrors of the Revolution, one of the worst of which was the drowning of hundreds of men and women, tied in couples to rafts and sunk in the water of the Loire.

LA ROCHELLE.

La Rochelle is an exceedingly pretty part of the country, with fine orchards and gardens and happy-looking people. Its streets are lined with large stone arcades, cool and delightful in the heat of summer. From here, in 1628, after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, emigrated the Huguenots who founded the town of New Rochelle a few miles north of New York City. The only existing relic of that time in La Rochelle is the table into which the mayor of the town drove his dagger in declaration of defiance when the ships and soldiers of Richelieu hemmed in the Huguenot town on all sides, determined to conquer the stubborn inhabitants.

About the wharves of La Rochelle we see typical fishermen and boys, with rich, golden-brown complexions, getting in their boats, each boat forming a little corporation in itself, for one man owns the rigging, another the nets, a third the tackle, while the only capi-

tal the boys bring are their stout young arms and legs; but they too are paid their share from the profits derived from the haul of fish. The women sell the catch, settle the prices, and take the fish to market. Hard though their work is, it brings reward in the independence they enjoy. Their houses are neat, there is plenty to eat, the brick floors are bright, and old French pottery, stores of linen, and burnished copper vessels, are the pride of the housewives.

POITIERS.

In Poitiers was fought, in 1356, the great battle in which Edward the Black Prince captured King John II of France. The crooked, straggling old town covers much space, and boasts the oldest Christian church in France, the Temple of St. John. The building has the look of everything that is supremely old, having arrived at the age when it ceases to show the mark of years, and a century or so makes no further impression on it. The great Palace of Justice was built in the twelfth century, and its three mighty fireplaces, side by side, seem to extend a lordly hospitality, inviting all the world to come and get warm. In this building Joan of Arc was examined by doctors and old women in order to discover some sign that she was a witch.

BORDEAUX.

Bordeaux is a large, rich, handsome mercantile town, whose fine houses, along the very edge of the port, give a very different look to the place from that of the water-fronts in American cities. As the point of distribution of the best wine in the world, Bordeaux is interesting; its precious vineyards, over the hills beyond the Garonne, with their rich clusters ripening in the sun form one of the chief sources of the country's wealth. The wide, tawny river Garonne is crowded with ships from all countries, and sturdy Basque longshoremen show the

strength of oxen in handling the freight on the great wharves, where we see plain evidence of the wealth, activity, and capability of this wonderful France, which produces so many of the agreeable and ornamental things of life.

Between the Gulf of Lyons and the Bay of Biscay are two little paradises divided by the waste lands of the Corbieres: Provence, of which Avignon is the center, watered by the Rhone; and the region of the Pyrenees, of which Pau is the center, guarded by the tremendous Peak of the Midi.

PAU.

Who that has ever sat and dreamed under this colonnade of trees on the esplanade of Pau can forget the magnificent scene? The old city's peaked roofs cluster one above another on a steep hill overlooking the vast plain, through which foam the waters of the Gave d'Ossau; the picture is framed by the purple ridges of the Pyrenees, above whose center from a cleft, rises the sublime obelisk of the Peak of the Midi, as regular in outline as if sculptured by primeval giants.

In Pau the birthplace of that gallant knight, King Henry of Navarre, is the great attraction; in the old castle of Navarre is the cradle of the idolized king; and all its sumptuous halls are replete with stories, romantic and tragic. But it is the Pyrenees that make this part of the country what it is. The stupendous peaks and gorges dominate the landscape; but however stern and savage their outlines, when we penetrate them their general aspect is cheerful, for they have abundant vegetation, and seem to reflect something of the joyous character of the Bearnese that dwell among them.

AVIGNON.

Avignon is surmounted by a coronal of mediæval towers, united by picturesque battlements, which show

us what kind of defensive walls they had in the Middle Ages. In the heart of the city stands the palace of the popes, who reigned there in the fourteenth century. Through apertures in its ramparts the besieged within poured boiling pitch on the heads of the enemy below. In its audience chamber the poet Petrach and Laura, his immortal love, received gracious greeting from the Pope; near the palace is the Cathedral of Notre Dame, where the poet used to gaze upon and sigh for the lady from a distance.

MARSEILLES.

One of the most brilliant of modern French cities is Marseilles, splendidly situated on the Mediterranean, with huge quays, and docks filled with throngs of ships. Although Marseilles was founded six hundred years before Christ, and was conquered by Julius Cæsar forty-nine years before the Christian era, it shows very few traces of antiquity, but is thoroughly modern in its public buildings, libraries, fine dwellings, and great factories producing leather, glass, and porcelain. The city rises from the curve of the sea like an amphitheater; its slopes covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and fine villas, present a scene of rare beauty.

LYONS.

At the point where the Rhone and the Saone rivers meet, the one stream gray, the other yellowish-brown, is Lyons, next to Paris the largest city in France and the most important manufacturing place in the country. Lyons is very ancient, having been colonized forty-three years before the birth of Christ. Seven of the Roman emperors were born here. In later times it grew very prosperous, but in the great Revolution it suffered terribly at the hands of the reckless leaders, even its name being changed for a time. Its quays are magnificent, bordered by fine trees and handsome houses. The Royal College, founded in 1519, is one

of the finest in France. On every side are the signs of great industry and wealth; there are factories for the production of jewelry, glass, and luxuries innumerable; but its greatest industry is the manufacture of silk, established here in the time of Louis XI, and now surpassing that of any other city in the world, its annual export of manufactured silk being valued at about $75,000,000.

DIJON.

Dijon, the ancient stronghold of the Dukes of Burgundy, is a pretty town. Now so prosperous from its potteries and its trade in the famous Burgundy wine, it has seen more tempestuous times than many other towns of its age in France. It was originally a Roman fortified camp; then it was burned by the Saracens in the eighth century, sacked by the Normans in the ninth, burned again in the twelfth, and besieged by the Swiss in the fourteenth; it suffered severely in the Revolution, and again in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870; but today it is a placid little place, and its wonderful museum contains many relics of the old days.

Now the time has come for us to turn our faces toward the chief jewel in the crown of France—Paris, the desire of the heart of every artist, every student, every lover of the beautiful. Of its joys and charms, its lights and shadows, we shall tell you in another part of this volume

CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE.

France for centuries has been the subject of endless songs and stories. The common idea of her people is that they are vain and frivolous. But France was always foremost in every great intellectual movement of Europe, and no people have such perfect power of smoothing over difficulties, such exquisite taste in art, in literature, and in matters pertaining to dress. The typical Frenchman is said to be found only in Paris,

but we must not rely too much on that saying, for the life of the provinces is very different from that of the capital and of the other cities. The men differ greatly in different provinces. The Norman is quarrelsome but industrious, and evades direct answers to questions like any Yankee; the Breton is honest, but stupidly obstinate; the people of Picardy are frank, blunt, but honorable; those of Poitiers are shrewd; the Gascon is witty and boastful; while the Provencals are lively and quick-tempered. Except in a few provinces where the dialect of ancient times is still in use, the French language is spoken, with certain peculiarities belonging to particular sections.

THE CHILDREN OF FRANCE.

In the middle and upper classes, French babies are the idols of the household; everything gives way before them, and the small people are fed almost like grown persons, taking wine as soon as they are a year old. From the day of its birth the laying-by of money begins, to furnish a dowry for a girl, or means for education and beginning life for a boy. Among some of the country people a girl baby's wedding trousseau and bridal stock of household linen is begun before she is a year old. Nurseries are practically unknown. Baby lives with the family the whole day long, petted and indulged to its heart's content. If a city baby is put out to nurse in the country, as is often the case, so that it may have fresh air, the family are always running out to see after its welfare; and if it remains in town, it takes the air in the handsomest baby-carriage, accompanied by the most daintily-attired nurse, that its parents can afford.

Young girls of good family are closely guarded and watched over until they are married, which usually occurs early. A young girl may not go out in the street alone for the most trifling errand; nor may she read a book, choose a friend, or have any sort of amusement

without the approval of her mother. Her education is likely to be obtained either from visiting governesses, or she is escorted daily to and from the house of a lady who receives pupils of equal social standing.

When a young man's suit for a girl's hand in marriage has won the approval of her parents, she is informed of the honor that has been done her, and is told that she will do well to say Yes. Usually she says it, for she is trained to implicit obedience in these matters, and is ready to be disposed of as her mother was before her. The dowry, accumulating since her birth, is settled upon her, and the wedding takes place very soon after the young man has been accepted.

A large proportion of unmarried French women retire into convents after the age of twenty-five, when they are considered out of the matrimonial reckoning; or they devote themselves to charitable works; in recent years a small proportion, gradually increasing, have learned and practised some profession.

French boys have a rather hard, dull time of it, for no sooner do they emerge from childhood and begin to make the house lively with a boy's natural noisiness, than they are packed off to the *lycees,* or government schools, of which there are one or more in every town, all connected with the University of Paris, by which the degree of Bachelor is granted to such youths as reach the required standard. These schools used to be under the control of the Church; but all schools were closed during the French Revolution, and after it the government, which needed money, sold their great playgrounds, which never could be recovered. Napoleon reorganized the schools to a half-monastery, half-barrack standard, as a sort of preparation for the inevitable military service that must follow. Under the rule of the present republic, however, primary education has been improved, state schools for girls have been established, and less time is given by the boys to military exercises. But they are still with-

out playgrounds in the large cities, and consequently miss the sports enjoyed by the youth of other countries.

The French boy of all classes has always to look forward to an experience he would rather forego—the conscription, or compulsory service in the army for three years following his twentieth birthday; after that he must be a member of the reserve military force—that is, he must hold himself in readiness for active service in case of need; then come six years' service in the territorial army, and six years in the territorial reserves. This strong permanent military force is necessary because of the exposed position of France, open on all sides to possible attack; but the necessity is a great hardship to young Frenchmen, especially to those of the better class, who have to leave comfortable homes, to lose their personal liberty, to submit to military discipline side by side with some fellow of the city, or a well-meaning but coarse peasant youth; to suffer cold in winter and heat in summer; perhaps be compelled to wear a second-hand uniform given to him for reasons of economy; to eat the most monotonous fare, and have no privacy whatever. The only comfort the young Frenchman can derive from this enforced soldiering must be the thought that it is all to uphold the glory and insure the protection of *la belle France!*

Germany.

GERMANIA was the common name used by the Romans, in the earliest days of their Empire, for that vast but little known region extending between the Rhine and the Vistula rivers, and from the Danube river to the North Sea and the Baltic. They first made the acquaintance of the inhabitants of this territory through Cæsar's campaigns in Gaul (France). These people of Germania formed a large

population and were supposed to have come originally, long before historic times, from upper Asia—a tall, blond or red-haired people, strong, fierce, and quarrelsome. They cultivated the land, bred cattle, and hunted the wild animals of the dense forests. In those early times they worshiped the old Scandinavian gods, to whom they sometimes made human sacrifices. After their successes in Gaul, Cæsar's legions invaded Germania as far north as the Elbe river and east to the Taunus Mountains. The energetic Romans built forts, dug canals, constructed roads and bridges; and Roman civilization (from 16 to 9 B.C.) made great strides in Germania, but, though the wild Germans made no opposition to these innovations, a few years later, when Rome tried to force them to submit to Roman laws, they rose in mighty rebellion, defeated the Roman legions in fierce battles, drove them out of their newly acquired territory, and made themselves independent, having learned from the unwelcome settlers among them some useful lessons regarding united action and military discipline. In time the small tribes became associated into large, strong nations, and when the decline of the power of Rome began, that once all-conquering empire was incapable of resisting their invasion of her dominions or of preventing the rise of a Germanic empire in Central Europe. Long before the beginning of the Christian era the Germans had renounced the pagan gods and believed in one Supreme Being, a future life, and eternal justice.

The real history of the First German Empire begins with the agreement known as the Treaty of Verdun (in 843), although Germany was included in the so-called Holy Roman Empire, which was established under Charlemagne in the year 800. By this treaty Germany, then known as Eastern Franconia (from its earlier subjugation by the empire of the Franks, or French) became separated forever from France (designated as Western Franconia), while the territory

known as Lorraine (or Mid Franconia) lay between them, a bone of contention. The founder of the Empire was Henry I, the powerful Duke of Saxony, who was elected to be King of Germany in 919. This monarch was terrible in war, but just and wise in peace; he acquired Lorraine for Germany, fought successfully against his foreign enemies, and in the empire itself he improved the discipline of the army, instituted the cavalry corps, built many towns, and laid the foundations of the great kingdoms of Saxony and Prussia. For many years a long line of his descendants had to contend with the never-ceasing efforts of the popes to acquire and retain supreme control of the empire in worldly affairs as well as spiritual. In later centuries, as some of the old imperial lines became extinct, the throne was occupied at different intervals, between the reigns of other German emperors, by Dutch, Austrian, Bohemian, and Hungarian princes. By 1493 the German Emperor Maximilian I brought about the beginning of a long period of public peace and established a supreme court of the empire. In his reign, which lasted until 1519, began the movement of the Reformation in the Roman Catholic Church headed by Martin Luther; and the reign of Maximilian's grandson, Charles V, which lasted thirty-seven years, was one of the most remarkable periods in the history of Germany. During this time the Reformation developed into full independence from the Mother Church; the Council of Trent was held (1545-1563), the decisions of which still rule the Roman Catholic Church; and this gave rise to that branch of the Church known as the Society of Jesus, or Jesuits. The empire of Charles V comprised Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Netherlands, Belgium, Spain, and large portions of Italy. Charles abdicated the throne in 1556, leaving Spain and the Netherlands to his fanatical son Philip II of Spain (who later married Mary I of England), and Germany and Austria to his

brother Ferdinand. A long succession of wars, based chiefly on differences in religion, followed under several emperors, and it seemed for a time as if Protestantism would be wiped out altogether, and that the Roman Church would rule the Christian world. The Protestant faith was saved in Germany only by the interference of the gallant Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden; and at last the different sects of Protestants were allowed peace and freedom of worship, and the Netherlands and Switzerland were acknowledged as independent States.

During the fifteenth century Germany was for a long time unfortunate in her rulers and her nobility, who were weak, slow, and stupid, and who imitated the frivolity and vicious ways of the French king, Louis XIV, and his dissolute court. A strong statesman arose in the latter part of this century, however, in the person of Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg, called "the king-maker," who was the founder and builder of Prussia as a great independent kingdom, over which Frederick I was crowned King in 1701. He ruled carefully, and laid the foundation of the great German army. When his son, called "Frederick the Great," came to the throne he continued the building up of Prussia into a state that soon ranked among the great Powers. He waged tremendous wars with Austria over territorial rights, and defeated her.

After Napoleon Bonaparte had risen to the throne of France (1804), and held all Europe in terror of his name, he united the German States—with the exception of a much curtailed Prussia and Austria—into a Confederation of the Rhine, which he took under his own rule. This audacious act brought to an end the long-existing form of the Holy Roman Empire, which in spite of wars innumerable, had held together since Charlemagne's coronation in 800. A fierce and prolonged struggle between Prussia and Napoleon, in-

cluding many famous battles, lasted from 1806 until 1813, when at the battle of Leipsic the Emperor of the French was completely routed and had to flee the country. Shortly after this he was banished to the island of Elba by the Allied Powers of Europe.

From the time of Napoleon's downfall (1815) to 1848, the German States acted together in some movements, though each State had its own reigning prince, but with no supreme power over all the States. In 1848 the general revolutionary uprising of the people throughout Europe affected Germany also, but it was rigidly suppressed by Prussian arms. After this revolt was quelled, Prussia used her utmost endeavors to bring together still closer the independent States. Under her King, William I, she established the North German Confederation, in which Austria had no part, although the constitution of the Confederation was later extended to include the whole of the present reconstructed Empire.

The creation of this Empire was largely the work of Prince Bismarck, a great German statesman, who, after the people of Prussia and other sections of Germany had united against France in the Franco-Prussian war (1870), brought about the union of the twenty-six Prussian and German States—including four kingdoms, six grand duchies, five duchies, seven principalities, three free cities, and Alsace-Lorraine, the latter having been captured from the French—into the now powerful German Empire, covering an area of 208,670 square miles, and having a population of almost 60,000,000. Each of the States is governed in its local matters by its own prince. Prussia, however, is under the rule of a supreme monarch who is at once the King of Prussia and the German Emperor; in the latter capacity he controls affairs that affect the Empire as a whole, but he is himself governed by the Imperial Parliament or Congress. The largest of the States are Prussia and Bavaria, the former being much larger and more powerful than all the others.

A PROSPEROUS AND PROGRESSIVE NATION.

Most of this vast empire is divided into carefully cultivated fields and vineyards, which produce wheat, oats, rye, barley, sugar-beets, potatoes, and grapes; and some of the finest cattle in Europe are bred on the German farms.

Next to England, Germany takes the lead among the European mining countries, her mountains yielding silver, lead, zinc, tin, copper, and iron in great quantities. Near the iron-mines are immense coal-fields, so that it is easy and cheap to obtain fuel to carry on great industries in that part of the country. Hundreds of factories make nothing but machinery; another produces nothing but railway locomotives; and another the great cannons used in warfare.

Besides possessing rich soil and mines, Germany is the most favorably situated country on the continent for carrying on traffic with Europe itself and with lands across the sea. It is surrounded by rich nations, with all of which it has an enormous trade. The Baltic and the North Seas give a convenient water route to Norway and Sweden and an outlet to the ocean, while the sheltered ports of Bremen and Hamburg connect Germany closely with England and give a direct passage to America.

If we should hover over Central Europe in an airship and look down at Germany, we should see that it is mostly a vast rolling plain, sloping gradually toward the two seas at the north. Looking southward, we should observe a rise of the land, with the higher level of Bavaria sloping upward to the beginning of the Alps. Among the Alpine heights rises the historic and beautiful Rhine, forming a tradeway from South to North; east of the Rhine is the Weser river, and east of that the Elbe, which bears a large traffic to and from the ocean. Still farther eastward are the Oder and Vistula rivers, which flow into the Baltic Sea. All these deep streams run nearly parallel with

one another, and all have navigable branches; canals crossing the land from one river to another have been constructed, giving Germany a wonderful system of convenient commercial waterways. Besides these, the Danube rises in the Black Forest in South Germany and gives a trade route to Austria-Hungary and the Black Sea, thus connecting the Empire with Asia. It was once necessary for ships to go around Denmark when they had to pass between the North Sea and the Baltic. In order to do away with this inconvenience, Germany, in 1895, cut a canal sixty miles long through the strip of land between the Baltic Sea and the mouth of the Elbe (leading to the North Sea), sufficiently wide and deep to admit the largest vessels. This waterway—the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal—cost the Empire $40,000,000. At the Elbe terminal is the city of Kiel, the chief German naval station.

An airship traveler could not fail to notice the intricate network of rail-tracks that covers the whole country, which has more railways than any other except the United States. All the great European routes cross Germany; and through the Alpine tunnels, by way of Italy, comes traffic from Asia, Africa, and Australia.

With all these natural advantages, with an industrious and economical people, and a good government, it is not strange that Germany, since her consolidation, has become one of the greatest Powers in the world. Besides its home territory, the Empire has colonies in Africa and China, and owns many islands in the Pacific Ocean.

But this great, rich country, being, as we have said, surrounded by other countries, must always be on guard lest invading peoples encroach on her territory. So, at intervals along its frontier of more than four thousand miles, immense fortresses with companies of soldiers warn off would-be trespassers. The German army is one of the finest in the world, and to

keep it so every well man in the country must serve seven years as a soldier, and in time of war boys of seventeen are called on to join the army.

GERMAN CITIES.

One of the oldest cities in northern Europe is Hamburg. Here, in the year 800, when Charlemagne assumed the headship of the Holy Roman Empire, he built himself a castle. The town soon began to be used as a seaport for commerce, and it is now the largest in Europe, toward which the great commercial highways of northern Europe converge. Its direct connection with many countries brings into its harbor vessels from all quarters of the globe. Steamers from the United States bear loads of cotton from the South, oil from our Middle States, and meats from our western stockyards, as well as many other kinds of food, for, rich as Germany is, it does not raise enough to feed all its people. Steamers come here from Australia, laden with wool from that great sheep-rearing country; vessels from Africa with consignments of ivory and rubber; fruit-ships from Italy; coffee ships from Brazil—all these meet at the wharves of Hamburg, besides the splendid steamers that carry passengers between the Old World and the New.

Another great North-German port is Bremen, not far from Hamburg. From this port every year thousands of Germans emigrate to America. The city is very quaint and old-fashioned, but has large modern establishments for the manufacture of cigars, smoking-tobacco, and snuff. It is also famous as having been (with Hamburg and the little city of Lübeck) one of the "free towns" of the Hanseatic League, an association of merchants, dating from 1241, for the protection of the seaport towns from bands of pirates that then roamed the seas and were the terror of coast towns. Those picturesque villains, the "robber barons," were also feared, for they lived in castles

along the rivers and made all vessels pay them a good sum for the privilege of passing those castles. Against all these the League succeeded in maintaining the freedom of the towns that joined it.

Dresden is one of the finest cities in Germany, or indeed in Europe. It is the capital of Saxony, and is famous for its magnificent collections of art, its splendid palaces, and its beautiful statues and parks. The King's palace contains a wonderful treasure-room, where one's eyes are dazzled by gold and silver plate and carvings. Among the glittering array of jewels is shown the pride of the collection—one of the largest precious gems in the world, known as the Green Diamond, weighing more than five ounces, and literally "worth a king's ransom." In the famous Dresden Gallery is a collection of masterpieces of art, one of which is called the most beautiful picture ever painted, the Sistine Madonna, by Raphael. Near Dresden is Meissen, where the exquisite and expensive Dresden china is made.

Another fine city of Saxony is Leipsic, a short journey by rail from Dresden. Several rivers meet at Leipsic, so that it is an excellent shipping-point for all the products of Saxony. One of the best known of these is the wool from a fine breed of sheep, which is made into the beautiful Saxony yarn. Leipsic is celebrated also as being the most important book-publishing city in the world. There are more than five hundred book-shops, and a hundred printing-offices, which turn out annually about sixty million books. As befits such a town, Leipsic has a fine university, largely attended by foreigners as well as by Germans.

Though the country has many factories, it is surprising to see how many kinds of goods are made, as in Switzerland, in the people's homes. In all towns, big or little, one finds whole families making all sorts of things by hand or on small machines or looms; silks, velvets, ribbons, woolen and linen fabrics, stockings, clothing, household utensils—almost everything we

commonly use. In the picturesque old town of Nuremberg in Bavaria, the larger part of the population makes toys, toys, nothing but toys: baby-houses, villages, animals, playthings for babies, dolls for little girls and soldier outfits for little boys. To look around a Nuremberg home gives the impression that Santa Claus must make a call there every night in the year. In many towns there are technical schools for teaching young people the higher branches of the manufacturing industries, such as porcelain, designing for dress goods, carpets, wall-papers, etc., or the secrets of working in iron, steel, and wood. One of the best of these training-schools is in Munich, the capital of the kingdom of Bavaria, which, next to Prussia, is the largest State in the German Empire, covering an area of more than 29,000 square miles. Here are the Bavarian Alps, among which, far above sea-level, are more than fifty Alpine lakes.

The ancient city of Munich, founded in the twelfth century, is delightfully situated on the Isar river, and in architectural respects it is the most beautiful city in Germany and it is even richer than Dresden in sculpture and paintings. The royal palaces and gardens and the art galleries are magnificent; the Academy of Fine Arts and the Conservatory of Music are attended every year by thousands of students from many countries; and its numerous beautiful public and private buildings make it a city of the highest interest. In front of its Hall of Fame stands a colossal statue, sixty-six feet high, representing the city of Munich, to the head of which visitors ascend, obtaining there a superb view of the Alps.

THE BLACK FOREST.

In the southwestern corner of Germany lies the celebrated Black Forest, the most beautiful part of which is in the Grand Duchy of Baden, famous also for its many mineral springs and the fine hotels in their vicinity. It is a region of long, deep valleys, shut in by

a chain of mountains extending eight-five miles and covered with dense dark pine forests, which give the region its name. Parts of these valleys are richly fertile, and the peasantry living there are prosperous and happy, for they own their own farms and vineyards. The scenery in parts of the Forest is very beautiful, and it is a favorite resort for tourists. In winter the Forest is very cold, but even then many travelers go there for the lively sport of ski-ing over the snow—that is, sliding over the hard crust on a kind of snow-shoes. The peasants build their houses and furniture out of the beautiful woods that grow all about them, and the chief industry, aside from agriculture, is the making of wooden toys and clocks. The Foresters cling to the picturesque costumes worn by their ancestors for centuries, and very gay and theatrical they look in their best attire.

THE RHINE.

At an elevation of nineteen hundred feet above the sea, in the Swiss Alps, two small streams fed by Alpine glaciers unite and form a larger stream, which soon broadens and deepens into one of the most beautiful and famous rivers in the world—the Rhine, nine hundred and sixty miles long, which passes through Lake Constance in Switzerland and hastens on into Germany, where it plunges over a rock seventy feet high, forming the highest waterfall in Europe; on it flows to Basel, and thence to its outlet into the North Sea, on the coast of Holland, which low-lying country, indeed, owes its very existence to the Rhine, having been built up through the centuries from the earth washed down from the Alps by the river.

This noble stream is not only useful in its navigable parts as a commercial waterway, but every year it delights thousands of people who come from distant lands to admire the beautiful scenery along its historic banks. As early as the times of the Roman Empire important towns were built along the Rhine; Julius

Cæsar headed his legions in marching beside its waters; the mighty Charlemagne fought many a battle near it; and in modern times Napoleon Bonaparte found it a useful means of transit as he and his armies went on their conquering way.

Excursion steamers start from Cologne for a trip up the Rhine. This ancient city possesses one of the famous cathedrals of the world, begun in the Middle Ages, but not completed until 1883. Its two great spires are 512 feet high, and its largest bell requires twenty men to ring it. Cologne has many industries, but the product by which it is best known is the toilet luxury known as Cologne-water.

Among the vineyards on both banks of the Rhine men, women, and children are at work hoeing and weeding, and pruning the vines. In the autumn they gather grapes all day long, to be carried to the presses to make wine. These workers are a cheerful lot, singing at their task, joking and laughing with one another while they accomplish much work. Most of the laboring class live simply on vegetable soup and black bread, milk, eggs, and potatoes, but very little meat. In the country they dress in a distinctively peasant costume, but in towns they wear the ordinary dress seen in French, English, and American cities.

At Coblenz there is a great fortress, built on a rock rising four hundred feet above the river, in which five hundred soldiers are always on guard. Farther up the stream is the romantic spot where stands the Lorelei rock, on which—so goes the old story—a lovely but wicked witch used to sit and comb her long hair, singing so sweetly that the boatmen on the river were enchanted and let their frail craft be dashed to pieces against the rock.

On a hill near Oberyssel one sees from the Rhine the greatest national monument in Europe, the colossal figure of a woman typifying Victory, erected by the Germans to commemorate their victory in the Franco-Prussian war.

At Mainz the tourist who is interested in historic remains leaves the boat and visits a wonderful old Roman tower, erected about the time when Christ lived upon the earth; also the quaint old house in which Gutenberg, the first printer, was born. From there he goes by train to Frankfort-on-the-Main, one of the greatest of German commercial cities; thence to one of the most beautiful places in the Empire—old Heidelberg, on the Neckar river. Among the countless schools and universities throughout the German Empire, in which are educated the youth of this highly intelligent and progressive people, Heidelberg University is their chief pride. It was founded in 1386, and later went through a long period of decline. Early in the nineteenth century, however, it revived and soon acquired a brighter fame than it possessed before. It is sought by studious youth of all nations, and its splendid corps of professors makes it the most famous and desirable institution for higher education in all Europe. Near it is the beautiful Heidelberg Castle, built in the thirteenth century, now an ivy-clad ruin, but of imposing beauty, and carefully preserved from further decay. In this classic town we may take our leave of Germany—so full of beauty, so well defended, and basing its greatness on the spirit of patriotism, of industry, and of intellectual progress found everywhere among its people.

Greece.

THE MOTHER OF HEROES, POETS, AND PHILOSOPHERS.

ANCIENT Greece was known to its own people as Hellas, and they called themselves Hellenes. The Romans used the terms Græcia and Græcians from the name of a tribe called Graikoi, with whom

they first came in contact at Epirus, as they approached Hellas.

In human progress Greece stood midway between Egypt and Rome. The country covered about 25,000 square miles, and was not large enough to become a world power in a political sense; its great influence in all civilized countries was made through its appeal to the intellect, and has come to us through the medium of the Romans, who conquered Greece 146 B.C., and thereafter adopted the refinements and arts of the highly cultured people, spreading these throughout the vast regions under Roman control.

We have not space to write of Greece's wonderful history, which began in the dim twilight of time and is wrapped in clouds of fable, through which, mingled with the figures of heroes and poets who were of undoubted flesh and blood, float the shapes of mythical gods and goddesses—Zeus, Hera, Aphrodite, Eros, Athene, Poseidon, Hermes—from whom many of the early Greeks liked to fancy themselves descended, as from real beings. The most precious gifts of Greece to mankind are the examples of heroism that we may find in her history, her splendid literature, not surpassed in modern times in beauty of thought and expression, and her magnificent art, which throughout the centuries has furnished models for the world.

The early Greeks were famous for their strength and beauty, and for their healthful manner of living, which included much indulgence in out-of-door sports and exercises, such as boxing, wrestling, leaping, running, dancing, archery, disk-throwing, putting the shot, chariot-racing, and playing ball.

The toys of Greek children were the models for those we have today. Babies had rattlers, and tiny imitations of all sorts of objects. Boys made their own toys out of clay, wax, leather, and wood. Little girls had jointed dolls and rolling-hoops with bells attached. The little Greeks played "tag," and spun tops of the same shape as those used today.

THOUGH CONQUERED BY THE TURKS, GREECE IS NOW AN INDEPENDENT NATION.

The ancient people of this little peninsula, which extends southward from Turkey and is only about as large as West Virginia, developed into a great commercial nation. From their many fine harbors they sent great boats, propelled by three banks of oars, to ports on the Mediterranean Sea, trading the finest products of Greece for those of other lands. The country then, as now, produced nuts, grapes, currants, figs, oranges, and many kinds of tropical fruits; and much silk was raised and exported. As Greece grew rich, other nations desired to possess the fair land surrounded by southern seas and beautiful islands. The Persians attacked it unsuccessfully, but at last it yielded to the Romans, and since the Christian era it has been conquered first by the Goths, then by the Turks, who treated the Greeks so cruelly that the classic land became almost a barbarous desert. At last, in 1830, with the assistance of some of the great European powers, Greece succeeded in her rebellion against the Turkish oppressors and became once more an independent nation. Her people chose a king, George I, from the royal family of Denmark, and her sixteen states are governed by this monarch through Parliament. The Greeks are steadily reinstating themselves in wealth and power, and the nations watch with feeling of sympathy, as well as of hopeful interest, the rise, from the ashes of long humiliation, of this motherland of the world's romance.

THE FAMOUS MOUNTAINS OF GREECE.

A great variety of scenery and climate is found in this small country. Mountains traverse it in every direction, and it has many gulfs, straits, and lakes, and a longer coast line than the whole Pyrenean peninsula. The Pindus Mountains form a sort of backbone, and some of its peaks are more than 6,000 feet high. Their

names recall our studies in history and mythology—Olympus, in Macedonia, in whose heights the gods were supposed to dwell, Parnassus, Helicon, Hymettus, famous for the honey obtained there since the days of Homer; and Pentelicus, from which was obtained the snow-white marble used by the two greatest sculptors that ever lived—Phidias and Praxiteles—in carving their immortal works, which have retained their dazzling purity through the centuries.

Summer heat is found in some places in March, the warmth of spring on the Corinthian Gulf, and the severe cold of Winter in Arcadia. Snow is seldom seen on the coast, while on the mountains it remains the year round. Attica, in which Athens, the capital, is situated, is the most healthful of all the Greek States. The population of Greece in the first decade of the twentieth century was 2,433,000.

THE BOYS AND GIRLS OF MODERN GREECE SPEAK IN THE ANCIENT TONGUE.

Modern Greek, as it is spoken, has many dialects, used in the different States. The written language is almost exactly the same as that used by the ancient Greeks, and all children, who must attend school between the ages of five and twelve, learn to read it. It seems odd to a foreigner to hear these little folk reading aloud and speaking the musical tongue used so eloquently by the great Greek orator, Demosthenes, more than twenty-two centuries ago. Other great Greek orators were Lycurgus and Æschines. A full list of the Greek immortals in philosophy, literature, and science would fill pages; but among the more celebrated of these men, the force of whose thought never has been exhausted, and from whom modern European literature has developed, were Homer, Xenophon, Socrates, Plato, Euclid, Aristotle, and Hippocrates, the founder of the science of medicine, Herodotus, Thucydides, and Polybius, the historians, Sappho, the

fervid poetess, and Pericles, the statesman, after whose death began the decline of Greece.

THE GREEKS OF TODAY.

Of these moulders of the world's thought, modern Greeks are justly proud. Education is with them a passion. A Greek boy will make any sacrifice to acquire knowledge. This general thirst for information is shown by the great number of newspapers throughout the country, eagerly read and warmly discussed, for the Greek today is as fond of argument as he was in Plato's time. In cities, the well-to-do Greeks live and dress like other Europeans of their class; in the country this proud people, who retain much of the beauty for which ancient Hellenes were famous, live much better than the corresponding class in other countries; they wear cloth coats and shoes and stockings, and make a point of having tables, table-linen, knives, forks, and spoons. Women are respected, and seldom are made to work in the fields. Young girls are guarded almost as jealously as among the Mohammedans. Women and girls "of the people" wear heavily embroidered but shapeless baggy robes, of gay colors; some of the men sport gold-embroidered vests, bright sashes, stuck full of knives and pistols, and tight trousers, over which is worn a *fustanella,* or white linen petticoat, made of many yards of cloth laid in deep plaits, which gives a curiously feminine appearance. The Greek is earnest, intelligent, and patriotic. With a vista of permanent freedom before him, his quick intellect and fine mettle, inherited from a nation of heroes, are destined to great things. The name alone of Hellene carries with it the right of speaking and doing nobly, and the modern Hellenes show that they will not disown their birthright.

India.

DIVIDING India from east to west, by an imaginary line eighteen hundred miles long, between the Bramaputra river on the east and the mouth of the Indus on the west, it may be said to resemble two vast, irregular triangles, with their bases joined and their apexes two thousand miles apart, their combined area being 1,560,160 square miles. Of these two imaginary subdivisions the upper triangle contains the Punjab, the northernmost province, and nearly all of Hindustan, and is bounded on its two sides by the mighty Himalayas and the Bramaputra river, which divide it from Tibet on the north; while the river Indus and the continuation of the great mountain range separate it from Afghanistan on the northwest. Hindustan and the Punjab contain the greatest mountains in the world, the densely populated valley of the sacred Ganges, and the vast desert country of Rajputana, and their climates range from that of eternal snow to one of endless summer. The bottom triangle comprises Bengal (the most fertile province of India), in which is located Calcutta, its principal city and capital, and the great southern subdivision of the Empire, known as the Deccan. In this are the populous cities of Bombay, Madras, Haiderabad, and other important places, including Golconda, reputed, by the ancient historians, to be then the richest city in the world. The Deccan is not as fertile as the country contiguous to the Delta of the Ganges, owing to its more frequent droughts, but it is densely populated and supplies the principal eastern commercial city, Madras, with the products that have made it famous. It also contains notable lumber forests, the principal woods being teak, sal, and deodar.

To the southeast of the point of Deccan lies Ceylon, the most gloriously wonderful tropical island in the

world, as well as the most productive. Its area is about 2,500 square miles. It has many fine roads, though these, during the monsoons, are rendered impassable from inundations, Ceylon having many mountain streams. It has one of the finest natural harbors in the world at Trincomalee, while the harbor at Colombo, its capital, is capable of admitting the largest vessels and is the calling station for mail steamers to and from Calcutta, China, and Australia. In its lower valleys are vast jungles, full of the many valuable hard woods, while its nearly always fertile fields produce rice, maize, wheat, barley, cotton, indigo, sugar-cane, opium, and the best varieties of tea, coffee, and spices. It is the principal producer of copra, made from the fiber of the cocoanut, which is exported for the manufacture of matting. In the interior of Ceylon is a beautiful district, believed by some to have been the Garden of Eden, but the tradition supporting this claim is of doubtful origin. Its population is 4,472,103 and is composed of Cingalese, or Ceylonese, Tamils, Moors, Malays, Veddahs, and a small proportion of Europeans.

Except in the far north, India is an exceedingly hot country, 15-1-2 degrees of it being in the torrid, and 12-1-2 degrees in the warmest part of the north temperate zone. There are three seasons, the rainy, the cool, and the hot, which is most enervating to Europeans, especially to their children, and only those who can not afford to send them away ever attempt to rear and educate them there. Droughts are frequent in many districts, and these have occasionally produced the most appalling famines of history, notably that of 1769, when more than one third of the entire population perished in the province of Bengal. In recent years, however, irrigation has been liberally introduced; it was sadly needed everywhere except in Bengal, and already more than $125,000,000 have been expended in irrigation.

INDIA'S INTERESTING EARLY HISTORY.

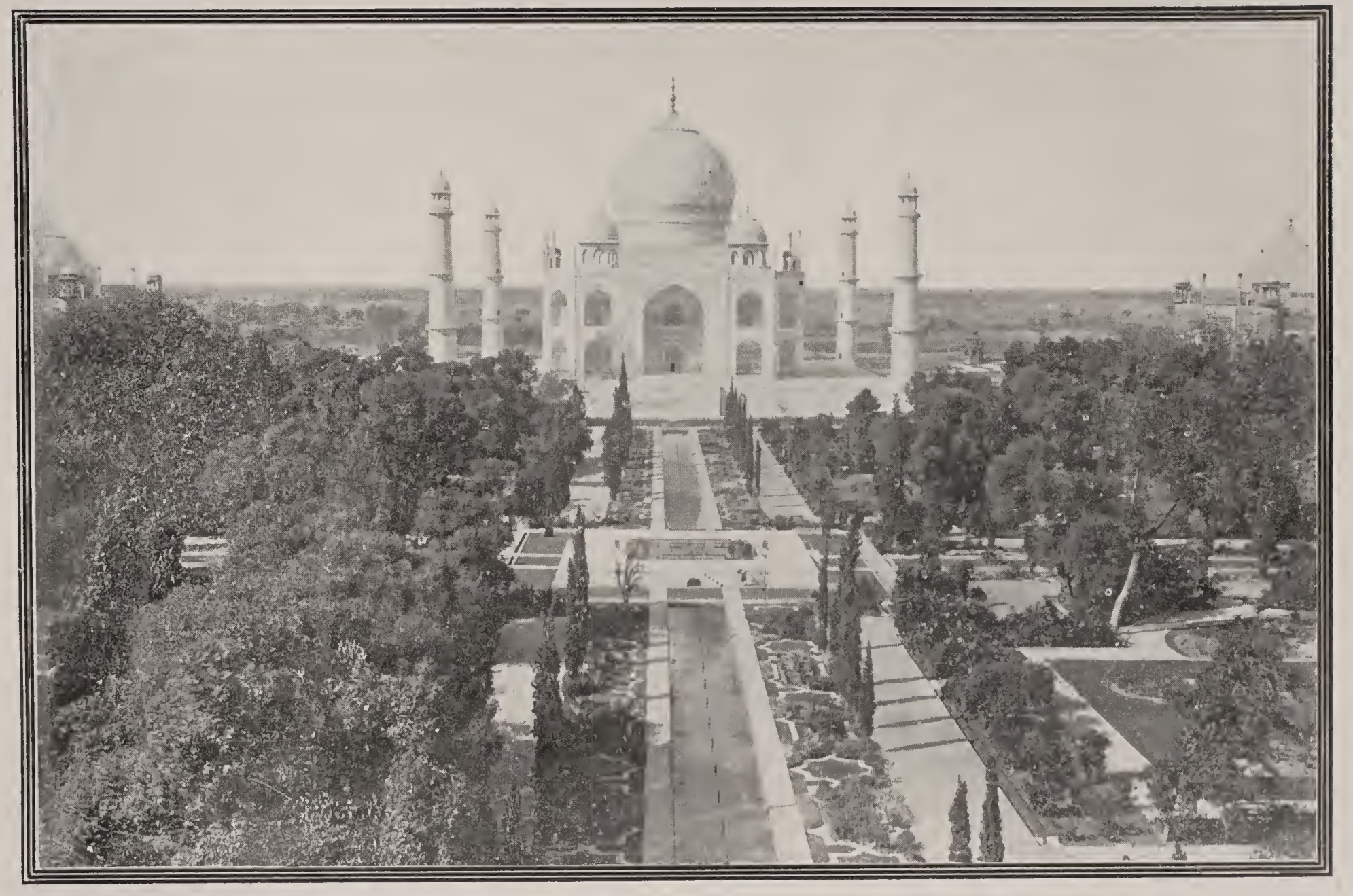
The known history of India is probably two thousand years older than the Christian Era. What it was before that is a sealed book to us, despite the statements of ancient manuscripts and the true historical record must begin with the invasion of the Punjab by the Aryans. Under their influence many great kingdoms were instituted, beginning in the Punjab, spreading throughout Hindustan into the Deccan, and thence even into Ceylon, where there are still some of the most interesting examples of ancient Hindu architecture, undimmed by the ravages of time. India first became known to the outside world through its invasion and conquest by Alexander the Great (326 B.C.), when Porus, the last of the valiant princes of that name to rule in the Punjab, was overthrown by the superior fighting power of the Greeks. Unlike most conquerors, however, Alexander, noting that Porus was wise and brave enough to rule his own people far better than could any invader, restored him to power. Relics of the Greek invasion found in the Punjab indicate that this was the only part of India affected by it. After the death of Porus came Asoka, probably the greatest of all the kings descended from the first Aryans, and for century upon century his methods were emulated by nearly all the rulers that followed him. It was not until a thousand years after the birth of Christ that India was again successfully invaded, this time by the fanatically religious followers of Mahomet. These poured in vast hordes through one of the two mountain passes on the northwest by which India can be invaded, swept through the land, overthrowing great dynasties and founding greater ones, destroying the temples of Buddha and erecting more magnificent ones to Mahomet. The first of the great Mussulman kings was Mahmud of Ghunzi, and following him were many Afghans and other disciples of Islam with Delhi as the principal capital. Others set

up kingdoms in the Deccan, almost without opposition from the Hindus, who found themselves unable to cope with the fierce onrushes of the Mussulmans. During the reign of Henry VIII (1526) a new conqueror named Babar, founded the Mogul Empire, and after him came Humayan, Akbar, and Jehan Gir. In the reign of this last-named emperor the first authentic accounts of the power and splendor of the Empire of the Great Moguls reached Europe through Sir Thomas Roe, Ambassador from the Court of St. James. After Jehan Gir came a much wiser and less selfish ruler in the person of his son, Shah Jehan, builder of the Taj Mahal.

In a lovely garden outside the city of Agra, in India, is this most beautiful mausoleum in the world. Travelers from all parts of the earth come to visit it. In poetry and in prose its beauty has been a theme for centuries. It was built by the Emperor Shah Jehan for himself and Mumtaz Mahal, his favorite wife, who died in 1629. Jean Tavernier, a French traveler who saw the mausoleum during the process of its construction, says that 20,000 men were continually employed upon it for twenty-two years.

Built of snow marble, its interior also is magnificent. Its total height is 190 feet, including its dome. At the four corners of the marble platform upon which it rests are minarets 130 feet high. Twelve kinds of stone, including the lovely lapis lazuli, compose the splendid screen surrounding the chamber which contains the cenotaphs of the Emperor and his consort. Its arabesques and mosaics are of unsurpassed beauty.

After Shah Jehan came his son Arungzabe, who in attempting to hold all India under his own sway, succeeded only in so incensing the smaller Moguls, that they rebelled and became almost separate and independent rulers, paying little or no tribute to Delhi. While the Moguls were engaged in gilding their



THE TAJ-MAHAL.—A Tomb built by the Emperor Shah-Jehan for himself and his favorite wife. It is said that 20,000 men were employed for twenty-two years in constructing it. The cost is estimated to have been about $25,000,000.

thrones and palaces in the interior, white adventurers and traders, Portuguese, Spanish, English, Dutch, and French in turn—were securing footholds on the coast under the pretense of paying princely returns for their concessions. In the inevitable breaking up of the undisputed power of the Grand Mogul at Delhi, one of these foreigners, François Duplex by name, saw an opportunity to increase the holdings of France by driving out the English, and the latter, being unprepared for a sudden attack, permitted Duplex to capture Madras and assume control, by arrangement with the reigning Mogul of the Carnatic province.

THE BLACK HOLE OF CALCUTTA.

Now, however, appeared upon the Indian horizon the most notable name in Indian history, that of Robert Clive, who at the age of twenty-three resigned a clerkship in the office of the East India Company to accept a commission in its army, and from this time to the final assuring of British supremacy in India, he was its only really brilliant military leader. Then came one of several horrifying episodes which caused Christian nations to withdraw their sympathy for the struggles of a great Oriental Empire, to prevent its destruction at the hands of the East India Company, under a charter from the British Crown. In 1756 Surajah Dowlah, Nahwab of Bengal, becoming offended at some act of Englishmen at Calcutta, seized a hundred and fifty of them and imprisoned them during a stifling hot night in a small room with a single tiny aperture. In the morning nearly all the unfortunates had been suffocated, and the story of The Black Hole of Calcutta was given to the world. Clive was hurried by sea to avenge the outrage; Calcutta surrendered after very little fighting; and Surajah Dowlah made financial compensation for its losses to the East India Company, but not a farthing was paid for the men, women and children who had perished in the

Black Hole of Calcutta! Now again war ensued between England and France, and Surajah Dowlah, false to his peace compact with Clive, took sides with the French. Anxious to punish him for his perfidy, Clive returned to Calcutta at the head of a tiny army of 2,000 Sepoys and 1,000 Europeans, with eight pieces of artillery, and put the Nahwab's army of 50,000 horse and foot to rout at the famous battle of Plassey (June 24, 1757), seventy miles from the capital city. As it was the custom of the East India Company to compensate its fighting men with large cash prizes, Clive was so rewarded to the extent of hundreds of thousands of pounds, and he returned to England as General Clive. Thereupon India became the scene of the boldest systems of bribery, corruption and official dishonesty that the world has ever known. Again Clive became the necessity of the hour, and it was decided that he alone could save India from what a recent writer has called, "the bribe-taking and personal boodling of the East India Company's own servants." This difficult task Clive accepted, as Governor-General of India, Lord Clive of Ireland, and Baron of Plassey. After a stormy experience of one and a half years as absolute dictator of Indian affairs, he set the house of Moguls in order, after a fashion, and returned to England a poor man. But he who succeeds is ever repugnant to him who does not; and Clive, now become the most hated man in England, was tried before Parliament for malfeasance in office, finally escaped with a reprimand, and shortly thereafter ended his brief but surprisingly brilliant career by taking his own life.

THE TRIAL OF WARREN HASTINGS.

Warren Hastings succeeded him as Governor-General, and proceeded to organize what Clive had made possible, a veritable British Indian Empire. In this, however, he was ever hampered by the plottings and exactions of the East India Company, now become a

"trust" greater than any of today, for it not only controlled the commercial destinies of India, but sought at the same time to dominate absolutely the government, both civil and military. The bitter quarrels between the Governor-General and the company resulted in charges that led to his impeachment by Parliament in a trial that lasted eight years, the great orator, Edmund Burke, acting as council for the Crown. Then, again, the quarrels between the company and the authorities continued without interruption, during which many warnings concerning dangerous seditions among the native troops passed by unnoticed, and the result was the terrible mutiny of 1857. The Sepoy regiments mutinied almost to a man, plunging the British residents into a state of panic quite as horrifying as the reign of terror of the French Revolution; and the frightful massacre at Cawnpore brought from the entire civilized world a demand for vengence. Nana Sahib, leader of the rebels, had promised immunity for the English on condition that they surrender to him peacefully. Helpless as they were, opposed by such overwhelming odds, they consented, and in the night nearly all of them—men, women and children—were shockingly butchered. England was aroused at last, and, when too late, troops were rushed to India. Delhi and Lucknow each suffered a long and desperate siege; the country was flooded with British soldiers bent on revenge; the rebellion was crushed and the leaders were punished by being blown alive from the mouths of cannon.

PRESENT FORM OF GOVERNMENT IN INDIA.

Then England awoke to the fact that a government must protect its subjects as well as its merchants, and that it was neither good business nor good politics to permit a commercial trading company to have the economic control of what was now a veritable empire. So the charter of the East India Company, sealed in

1600 by Queen Elizabeth, was abrogated in 1858 by Queen Victoria, who was not, however, proclaimed Empress of India until 1877. Since that time India has been governed by a Viceroy or Governor-General, appointed by the Crown, together with a cabinet and governing council, who exercise actual legal supervision over the Empire. The Rajahs and Maharajahs of states or provinces are nominally the governors of their respective states, which keeps them loyal to England and their people loyal to them. Some of the smaller states or provinces are so unimportant to England in a business sense, that there is little change in their government from what it was before the Governor-Generals came.

INDIA'S POPULATION, ITS RELIGION, AND ITS CASTES.

The population of India is 300,000,000, of which number only about 175,000 are white, or Europeans. In the army of 215,000 to 220,000, fewer than one-third are white men, which fact alone would appear to be something of a menace to England's hope of permanent peace for her Eastern Empire, since the Sepoy soldiers have mutinied before, and may still have some hope for a return to old conditions. Much the larger number of the people earn their living by tilling the soil, producing great crops of wheat, millet and rice, while a comparatively insignificant number are workers in the Indian arts, such as embroidery, jewelry, silken fabrics and ornamental brass and silver work. Formerly the Hindus were great weavers, and vast quantities of textile goods were shipped to England, bringing handsome returns. But the main profits went to the Hindu producers, so the government, to encourage the home producers of fabrics, protected them by placing a prohibitive tax on silk goods made in India; the Hindu weavers then ceased exporting and worked only such looms as would supply their own people and travelers. Of the languages there are

BATHING IN THE GANGES.—The Ganges is "the sacred river of the Hindus," who believe that it rises at the feet of Buddha and that it possesses miraculous cleansing powers. Our picture illustrates the devotion of India's teeming millions to their religious duty of bathing in its waters.

nearly as many as there are settlements, most of them being dialects founded on Sanskrit, the language of the Aryan family, while many more bear the taint of Mussulman vulgarism. It may be said, too, that there are as many forms of religion as of speech, if not more, although the two dominating ones are the Hindu or Brahministic, and Mohammedan, the former outnumbering the latter two to one. All the other sects are, to a greater or less degree, founded upon these, except the Buddhists, Maharattas, and a comparatively small number who are Christians. In spite of the inroads that have been made on the Hindu religion by the priests of Buddha, Hinduism is likely to remain the religion of the masses, no doubt because its faithful may choose their own gods. Any Hindu may set up his own god to worship, which may be a fish, a bird, a wild or domesticated beast, or some monster of his own designing. In the city of Benares, which may be called the fountainhead of Hinduism, is a temple devoted to the worship of the monkey, and there are always large numbers of these chattering and grimacing gods playing about the shrines and altars. The feeling between the Hindus and Mussulmans is bitter to the extent of fanaticism, and nearly every week throughout the year there are riots in one or the other of the great centers, always attended by bloodshed and often the loss of life. The writer once witnessed a riot in the Mohammedan quarter of Bombay, in which forty persons were killed and many wounded on both sides before the troops arrived to quell it, the cause being the killing by a Mussulman butcher of a cow, held by the Hindus to be sacred. The Hindu religion forbids the shedding of blood, and this protection extends even to destructive vermin and pests that infest the fields and destroy crops. Often fields are invaded by swarms of monkeys in search of grain for food, but they are simply frightened away by watchers and never are killed. Even game intended for hotels,

if furnished by Hindus, is caught alive and carried to customers in cages, who, being ungodly according to the Hindu faith, may kill them at their will, while the Hindu hunter earns his profit without the shedding of any blood. Buddhism and its branches have not as many followers as the searchers after some belief to supplant Christianity would have us believe. But it is still the religion of many of the higher castes, and since it came through the passes in the northwestern mountains with the great Asoka into the valley of Indus, the wars and schisms of centuries have not been able to destroy it.

The Parsees, who are a race of Semitic strain, are very numerous in some of the large cities and are successful traders and financiers. They are worshipers of the elements, fire, water and earth, as exemplified by the sun, the sea, and the soil on which they live; they are most devout and highly moral, and their veneration for the elements named forbids their contamination even by the dead. Accordingly great circular stone towers, resembling in form a Spanish bull-fighting ring, are erected, and in these "Towers of Silence" as they are called, the dead are laid, so that the vultures, of which there are thousands in every Indian city, may swoop down and devour them. The Hindus cremate their dead, while the Mohammedans bury in the ground or lay them away in tombs. The old Hindu custom known as the suttee, which compelled widows to throw themselves on the funeral pyres of their husbands to be buried alive, was prohibited by law more than fifty years ago; yet, despite the assertions of the British authorities to the contrary, it is still practiced in some remote districts where only native rulers are in power. The early missionaries wrote many stories showing how fanatical Hindus, believing they could secure eternal peace in the spirit world, threw themselves under the wheels of the Juggernaut, but investigation by the government proved

1. An Indian Singer, of whom there are so many in Madras. 2. A High Caste Indian Girl, a native of Madras.

this to be untrue. The Juggernaut, which is still in existence, though sadly in need of repair is like an enormous truck, with broad, wooden wheels, surmounted by a small pagoda-like structure in which the idol is seated. To this car elephants are attached, it is drawn through the streets and many, among the throngs that crowd about it to lay hands upon the sacred figure, are accidentally crushed.

The Hindus, from time immemorial, have been divided into separate and distinct classes known as castes, each of which is forbidden to mingle in any way with the others. There were originally four castes. The priests known as the Brahmins were one, descendants of those who first conquered India another, the soldiers a third, while those of the fourth caste were considered base-born because they came of a race which permitted itself to be conquered. Afterward, these four original castes were divided into many others, each with its own particular laws, which are strictly obeyed under heavy penalties for violation. High-caste people will never eat food, wear clothes, nor drink water provided by servants of a lower caste, nor will they permit themselves to be driven by them in carriages, or ride in the same railway car with them. Some persons lose caste if they cross the sea, or are seen dealing in any way with a Mussulman; or if they permit their children to mingle with those of another caste. Even the high-caste servant of a European may not deliver a letter to a Hindu of lower caste, else he is cut off from his own caste forever, and from this judgment there is no appeal.

FAKIRS, DANCERS, CONJURERS, ETC.

There are many fakirs in India. This word has been adopted into English and American slang to signify that class of people who appear to be what they are not. To be exact, the word applies very well to most of the fakirs of this wonderful and inter-

esting country, for while all of them are most ingenious in their trickery they are by no means as mystifying as most writers about them would have us believe. The most popular of the fakirs are the conjurers or magicians, and their feats, believed to be the result of some sort of supernatural power on the part of their performers, by the Hindu onlooker, are easily explainable to the more exacting mind of the not so gullible traveler. A case in point is the celebrated mango trick which, we are assured by cyclopedias and well-known writers of travel, is so mystifying as to seem like positive magic. According to these commentators, the seed of the mango is planted in the ground, when immediately it begins to sprout, put out branches and leaves, burst into blossom and bear fruit in full view of the audience. It has been suspected by many that this blind belief in the magical power of the performer is the result of hypnotism, but the blasé traveler, who resists such power, if it really has any existence, only believes that he is being entertained by a clever conjurer, and immediately sets about conjuring his own mind into an explanation of the trick. As a matter of fact, the seed is planted in the ground, leaves and branches are put forth, there are blossoms, and then fruit which is thrown into the audience. But each of these stages of growth is covered by a cloth, there are words of cabalistic import, water is poured upon the plant, also under the cloth, and during the few moments, while the auditor is listening to the incantations of the performer, the latter is deftly changing the unfinished growths of the tree to the more advanced ones and concealing the former in the folds of his ample robe. On one occasion, during one of these exhibitions at Delhi, the writer sat beside a gentleman who was "doing" the fakirs of India for a London magazine. A few months later the article appeared, and it was so sweeping in its assertion that only the supernatural could have made so wonderful a feat possible, that the only inference to be drawn from it

THE DEVIL'S DANCE.—The natives of Indo-China believe that sickness is caused by the devil. The dancers are supposed to have power to drive his demons out. They dance, wearing frightful masks, before the patient till they fall in convulsions. The patient, feeling relieved, pays them liberally.

must be that this particular commentator was either hypnotized by the fakir or else purposely misled his readers. Many other feats are performed by these clever Hindus, but they are mystifying only according to the extent to which the onlooker permits himself to be fooled. Snake-charming is another interesting feature of the fakir's calling, but the onlooker does not know that the fangs of the poisonous cobra have been carefully withdrawn, making his bite harmless. Generally, the snake-charmers carry about with them a mongoose, a little animal looking very much like a large ferret, and for a few rupees, a fight to the death may be arranged between the mongoose, (the natural enemy of all manner of snakes) and the cobra, in which the mongoose is invariably the victor. The Hindu Nautch dancers, imitations of which we have often seen in our theaters and music-halls, travel about the parts of India most frequented by travelers, and give their exhibitions in the streets. Their gyrations and posings are very graceful indeed, but the dinginess of their costumes and the uncleanliness of their faces, hands and feet, rather incite the traveler to prefer the imitation to the real. An exceedingly interesting personage among the traveling entertainers is the public story-teller; there are very many in every district of India, who relate to large and interested audiences, for contributions from those who can afford them, admirably constructed condensations of history, and ingenious legends of ancient folk lore.

THE HINDU AND THE ENGLISH.

In spite of the ever-varying, endlessly fascinating panorama of scenes and incidents that are enfolded to the sojourner at almost every stop, there is always—at least to the traveler who is not wedded to the belief that everything done by England is right because England did it—a sense of regret at the ever-present atmosphere of departed glory. The great public buildings of Calcutta and Bombay, instinct with the incess-

ant wheels of government and the elevating influences of education, are among the most stately and magnificent in the world; but the silent, tenantless, bejeweled palaces, assembly halls, mosques and temples, of Agra, of Delhi, of Golconda, of Haidarabad and of Lucknow, can not fail to impress the unbiased observer with an awe that causes him to sigh for the splendors of days that are no more. Occasionally, for example, at the installation of a new viceroy, or during the visit of some member of the royal family, the splendor and magnificence of these departed days are imitated in gorgeous fêtes, processions, and durbars. But, after all, they are mere shows, not ceremonies, and, these over, there is no reminder left of the Mogul days, save the occasional visit to a large city of some Rajah governor or other small potentate, at the head of a sad-faced, faded retinue of retainers. The Hindus are free as all dependents are free who have little or no voice in their own government. Their personal liberties are never interfered with, so long as they are not refractious of law, and they are wisely and justly governed. Their religions are inimical to those of the governing power, but they are never molested, and no hindrance is placed upon such rites or ceremonials as either Hindu or Mussulman may choose for his temples or mosques. The Christians would forbid the practice of these religions if they could, but the government issues no edicts against the unrestrained practice of idolatry, nor does it, even on sanitary grounds, forbid the bathing of fanatical hundreds of thousands in the muddy waters of the sacred Ganges at Benares, or the scum-covered water of the sacred bathing-pools in every large city. Nevertheless, neither Hindu nor Mussulman feels that he is other than unwilling dependent or ward of an unwelcome invader of his lands and a ruthless destroyer of the rights that have come to him down the pathways of the ages. The Rajahs are loyal, no doubt, because disloyalty would divest them of the few vestiges of power that are left to them;

and the masses of the people wear the outward signs of contentment; but they are few indeed who would not return, if it were possible, to the gorgeous though tyrannical sway of those who ruled before the English trader came. The land of the Hindu is vastly rich, but the Hindu himself is poor, and the conquered never forgets nor forgives his conqueror. It is a wondrous empire, but that it is peaceful and enduring is a question that is often opposed by serious doubt. Mr. Price Collier, in *Scribner's Magazine* (April, 1911), commenting upon England's Indian responsibilities, writes: "This is what England has undertaken to defend against Japan, China, Russia, Persia and Turkey—with Germany on her flank in the North Sea. There can be no weakness, no social-reform flabbiness, if these colossal responsibilities are to be properly safeguarded. There is also a discontented, some say disloyal, population in India to keep under. In Lucknow and other cities the statue of the Empress-Queen is guarded day and night by a sentinel to protect it from coarse infamy and injury. * * * A short time ago a leaflet was distributed in Bengal, signed 'Editor,' that contained the following words: 'Sacrifice white blood undiluted and pure on the altar of freedom. The bones of the martyrs call out for vengence, and you will be traitors to your country if you do not respond to your country's call. Whites—be they men, women, or children—murder them indiscriminately, and you will commit no sin.' "

Ireland.

A LAND OF LAUGHTER AND OF TEARS.

IRELAND'S early history is buried in fable, but an Irishman is at no difficulty to account for the origin of the island. He will tell you that when great Lucifer fell and was cast out of heaven he tried

to carry a bit of it away with him; but as St. Michael was close at his heels, he was obliged to drop it; falling upon the earth it came to be known as Ireland. Hence the naming of so many little boys in honor of the Saint.

Petrarch speaks of the island as Ogygian, meaning "very ancient," and says: "They drew their history from remote antiquity, so that of other nations is new compared with them." There is no real, but much probable foundation for our information as to their early kings and their Greek and Phœnician colonies. The first records of the Irish people show them well advanced in civilization. Cæsar mentions this, and other writers speak of the Druids in Ireland as learned in philosophy and science. In the Irish chronicles it is recorded that more than a thousand years before Christ "society was classified in seven grades; each was marked by the number of colors in its dress; in this classification men of learning were ranked next to royalty." The laws of Ireland previous to the Conquest, which existed in some communities down to the seventeenth century, are remarkable for their copiousness and furnish striking evidence of the great moral and metaphysical refinement in this primitive people. In fact, all early records point to a complete social organization. Marvelous for its time, too, was their Triennial Parliament of Tara, called the Feis Tara. Ollav Feola, who reigned as Ard Re, or monarch of Erinn, about a thousand years before Christ, established this institution. It consisted of three branches: the first, composed of princes or chieftains; the second, the law-givers, bards, judges, scholars, and historians, and the third, the military commanders. Under the monarch were the kings of the provinces, and under each king were clans that selected each its own chief. There was much fighting in Erinn as elsewhere in those fighting days, and much of the bloodshed was due to the antagonism naturally existing

among men of differing races. For Ireland's early inhabitants, the Tuatha de Danaans, the Firbolgs, and the Milesians remained distinct races for centuries. In the face of the foe, however, they fought as one. United, they defied Rome when she commanded all Europe, and worried her province of Britain. Gentle Saint Patrick brought in Christianity peacefully, and Ireland soon became the seat of western learning. She sent from her monastery schools, missionaries who spread the gospel of Christ all over continental Europe. At these courts, especially at the court of Charlemagne, her scholars were among the most distinguished, and to her for instruction came from all over the civilized world the most brilliant students. Toward the end of the eighth century her progress was checked by attacks from the Danes; nevertheless, between the eighth and the twelfth centuries she produced many writers of merit. The Danes were finally overthrown at the Battle of Clontarf in 1014, by Brian Boroihme, or Boru. This famous king is the great hero of the Irish. He became king of Cashel, a district comprising the present counties of Tipperary and Clare, and in 1001 was acknowledged the chief king of Ireland. He died at the battle of Clontarf.

The first attempt at an Anglo-Norman descent upon Ireland was made in 1155, when Henry II received from pope Adrian IV a bull authorizing him to take possession of the island upon condition of paying into the papal treasury an annual tribute. Circumstances prevented Henry from entering Ireland until 1172. Then, with a formidable following, he visited the island and received homage from several minor chiefs. His principal adventurers succeeded with great difficulty in establishing themselves on the lands they then obtained. Norman laws were introduced here and there, and the government was committed to a viceroy. But in 1210 King John found it necessary

to visit Ireland in order to subdue his barons, who through their alliances with the natives had become very powerful and unruly.

In the thirteenth century the Normans established their feudal institutions in some parts of Ireland. At this time, too, certain Norman settlers obtained almost unbounded power here, and thus originated many now familiar Irish names—the Fitzgeralds became Geraldines, the Le Botillers, Butlers, the De Burghs, Burkes. After the battle of Bannockburn English authority suffered something of a collapse. The Normans, instead of absorbing the Irish, adopted their language, laws and habits, gradually becoming identified with the natives.

In 1541 Henry VIII received the title of "King of Ireland," by an act passed by the Anglo-Irish parliament in Dublin, and about that time some of the native princes were persuaded to acknowledge his sovereignty and to accept peerages. But both the English settlers and the native Irish rebelled against the doctrines of the Reformation, and efforts to introduce other English institutions caused great trouble. From this time until 1800, the story of Ireland is the story of her resistance to English rule. In the south, and in the islands off the west coast of Ireland, is a strong Spanish strain. In 1601 Philip III of Spain sent a body of troops to the assistance of the Irish chiefs in rebellion against Elizabeth. They landed in the South, instead of in the North as was intended, and were obliged to surrender. Many of them remained in the country, and married native women.

In 1641, England being busy over her internal affairs, Ireland arose in insurrection, and a massacre of forty thousand Protestants resulted. Lawlessness prevailed until subdued by Cromwell in 1649. Many stringent acts against the Roman Catholics caused widespread trouble and resulted in the rebellion of 1798 which remained unsuppressed until the legislative union of Ireland and Great Britain in 1800.

With this little knowledge of the marvelous early civilization and great scholarship of the people of the "tight little Isle," we may form some idea of the race that developed Fenianism and the Land League and has fought so steadily for Home Rule.

SAINT PATRICK.

Saint Patrick, the patron saint of Ireland, began in the fifth century his work as a missionary in Downpatrick, where he is supposed to be buried. His real name was Patricius, and he was born either in France or in Scotland. He was captured when young and sold into slavery in Ireland, and in the six years he worked there, he learned to love the Irish people. Escaping, he returned to France, studied hard for several years, and then returned to Ireland to lead the people to Christianity. Beginning with Downpatrick, he worked all over the island, establishing schools of learning and winning the inhabitants away from the strange religion of the Druids, which required human sacrifices and which had prevailed for nobody knows how long. Then, too, he succeeded in bringing about a better feeling among the many tribes on the island, which had spent most of their time in warfare. There are no snakes in Ireland, and Saint Patrick is supposed to have driven them out. A verse of a favorite song runs thus:

> "Upon the top of a tall green hill
> St. Patrick preached a sarmint;
> He drove the frogs into the bogs
> And banished all the varmint."

A beautiful cathedral in Downpatrick bears the saint's name and is said to be his last resting place. Nothing of the original church remains but one beautiful east window.

BELFAST.

Belfast is the greatest linen-center in the world, and Irish linen is the finest in the world.

Climate and soil contribute to cause this. To grow flax successfully, much moisture is required, and Irish weather is notoriously damp, not to say very wet, about two hundred days of that sort being the average in a year. Weather being a thing not to command, Ireland should fear little competition in growing flax; yet some of her best ground has become exhausted and she receives from Russia, Holland and Belgium nearly three times as much as she herself raises.

Flax is planted in April and gathered in July. It is then left standing in water, weighted down, for three weeks. This is called "retting." Then it is dried on the grass in the sun for two weeks more. Other processes follow, all of which you may read about in Volume X. The fine quality of Irish linen is due very largely to the great care taken in its making. Even when the fabric leaves the mill it is sent away into the country for further bleaching on the sweet grass. Many acres are thus covered by the linen, in long strips, guarded night and day against robbery. Many years ago all the weaving was done on hand-looms in the modest homes of the workers, and today the finest is still so done.

In Belfast, the linen industry supports about half the population, and most of the cities and villages in the north of Ireland live by it. In all Ireland there are about nine hundred thousand spindles and thirty-five thousand power-looms. More than half of this linen is sent to the United States.

BELFAST'S SHIPYARDS.

The building of a big, staunch ship is a wonderful thing, when we consider the great cargoes she must carry, and her many passengers who trust her to bring them safely through dark nights and storms to their journey's end. Belfast's shipyards are not so important as those of Glasgow, yet she does well in this industry, considering that her harbor is shallower

than the Clyde, and that her coal and iron mines are much inferior to those near Glasgow.

THE GIANT'S CAUSEWAY.

You may have heard of this greatly admired spot in Ireland. It is not far from the little seaport of Portrush. About forty thousand smooth columns of rock, rising out of the sea, compose the Causeway. It is believed that this weird, rocky formation was once connected with one of a similar sort to be found ninety miles away on the Scotch island of Staffa. Here is the story the natives tell concerning it. The champion giant of Ireland, once, was Fin MacCoul. There being no one in the country able to overcome him, he sent a challenge to a Scottish giant named Benandonner, who had jeered at Fin's reputation. Benandonner refused the challenge, saying he objected to swimming the intervening sea in midwinter. Whereupon the King of Ireland came to the aid of the doughty Fin by allowing him to build a bridge to Staffa. Fin thus forced the fight, and the Scotch giant got a thorough beating. He became Fin's humble servant, and the sea arose and covered all of the bridge but the two ends in Scotland and Ireland. The Scotch tell a different story, as you may believe.

SOME OTHER IRISH TOWNS.

Westward lies Londonderry, another important linen-center and a town that cures and exports a great deal of fine bacon. Much fierce fighting with the English has taken place here, and many long sieges, one of them lasting more than a hundred days. At first the town was called Derry, but later the conquering English added London.

In the center of Ireland is Athlone, an important military station. From this point one may go down the river Shannon to Limerick, a city of more than 40,000 inhabitants. The Shannon is Ireland's chief

natural waterway; many canals assist it in carrying to the ports the produce of the farms. It passes through many fertile plains and through part of a gloriously green valley rich in flocks and herds and in fields of vegetables and grains. It is known as the Golden Vale (or Vein). No other pasture-land in the British Isles equals it.

Limerick is a busy city, canals and railways centering here from all parts of the island. It has many industries—foundries, factories, tanneries and mills, especially flour-mills; and Limerick women produce fine lace. It is also a thriving port on the estuary of the Shannon.

BEAUTIFUL KILLARNEY.

Now we come to Killarney of the beautiful lakes and dells. The village is an unattractive one of about five thousand inhabitants. The people are mostly poor, the streets narrow and dirty. But it is set in a region of wonderful beauty. Of the famous lakes, the largest, Lough Leane, is five miles long and about three miles wide. Here are many storied ruins overshadowed by the great MacGillicuddy Reeks, the highest mountains in Ireland, and many high hills. The famous Gap of Dunloe is here, a narrow defile extending five miles between steep hills.

Between wild, bleak mountains flows the Long Range, a stream uniting the Middle and the Upper Lakes. The spot where this stream flows into the Middle Lake is known as the "Meeting of the Waters." Sparkling waters, reflecting brilliantly green banks, and guarded by the Eagle's nest, a great steep hill; a blue sky and white, floating clouds; over all a brooding silence—this is truly a place of exquisite dreams.

The Upper Lake, half the size of the Middle, is another Irish gem, guarded by the Purple Mountain. There are many beautiful little islands in this smallest lake, containing historic ruins.

BLARNEY CASTLE, IRELAND.—A ruined castle near Cork. On the highest point of the tower is a stone, kissing which, it is said, will make one irresistibly eloquent.

CORK.

Between Killarney and Cork is a stretch of country grand but chiefly bleak and barren. Its scattered villages are uninteresting, and there are few fertile farms. Here, as in most of the south of Ireland, the people seem poverty-stricken; doubtless the most enterprising have emigrated, leaving to the less fit the task of caring for themselves under difficult conditions.

Cork presents a smiling face to the world. The people are busy, prosperous and full of fun. Round about the city is a fertile country. Situated on "the pleasant waters of the river Lee," and an important railway center, it is a distributing-point for produce and manufactures. It is the largest and most flourishing city of southern Ireland. There are woolen mills and foundries, great breweries and distilleries and shipyards. The market-places are crowded. The city has many fine streets, handsome residences and public buildings. Its college is famous. The outlying country is fertile, its prosperity is evident, the stately homes of the landed gentry are well cared for, the thatched cottages of the farmer folk are neat and comfortable.

In the church of St. Anne, in Cork, are preserved those Shandon Bells, so dear to Irish hearts, of which Father Pront wrote so lovingly:

> "With deep affection and recollection
> I often think of the Shandon bells,
> Whose sounds so wild would, in days of childhood,
> Fling round my cradle their magic spells."

Blarney Castle, rather its ruin, stands not many miles from Cork. It has a famous stone set in an almost inaccessible part of an outer wall, the kissing of which is said to make one irresistibly winning in speech; and "to blarney" has passed into our language, meaning to cajole and coax with compliments and flattery.

To the northeast of Cork lies Waterford, with 30,000 inhabitants. Its importance as a seaport lies greatly in its situation at the outlet of three rivers. Its exports are the fine cattle, bacon, oats, butter, and vegetables produced on the rich lands of the region.

Lying in the rich Golden Vale (or Vein) is the little town, Tipperary, which nearly rivals Cork in its production of butter. It is an ancient town and was occupied after the invasion, by the English under King John as a stronghold. A few miles away is the famous Rock of Cashel, upon whose bold height stand monastic ruins of a mediæval period, and the great stone, the Holy Cross, one of the few original Irish crosses preserved to us. The ruins here, some of them perhaps Druidical, are among the finest in Europe.

IRISH PRODUCTS.

Ireland has an area of 32,360 square miles and more than half the land is given up to pasturage or to raising hay. The potato is still the principal vegetable, although it is of less importance as a product than formerly. This is doubtless a good thing, as many famines resulted in Ireland from the failure of the potato crop. There are in Ireland about six hundred thousand horses and nearly half as many donkeys. There are about three and a half million sheep and many cattle, and nearly every rural family keeps a pig.

For centuries the manufacture of iron, of which Ireland has immense stores, was an important industry, the ore being smelted by wood charcoal. When the supply of wood gave out, the industry died, the island containing but little coal. Peat, or "turf," is Ireland's chief fuel, obtained from bogs in the central plain. Once this district was a great forest of oak-trees, which were killed after a while by mosses and other plants. The trees fell and were replaced by a forest of firs, which also perished and became buried

with the oaks, forming peat. The depth of the bog is from twenty-five to forty feet on the plain, and not more than twelve feet in the mountains. In good preservation have been found skeletons of men and animals, tree-canoes, gold and silver coins and ornaments, log houses, and wooden roadways.

Italy.

A LAND OF ROMANCE AND POETRY.

AS far back as history is recorded, Italy has been the paradise of earth, for no country combining such scenery and climate, such fertile land and picturesque waters, is found elsewhere. Nature herself has seemed to try to protect her treasure-house of beauty, for on three sides she has surrounded it with water, and at the north has thrown up the tremendous wall of the Alps. But this gigantic barrier has known the footprints of many people, who left their traces on the Alpine roads leading down to the earthly paradise. Italy was the desire of the world, and all men were wooing her; she became the center of early culture, and every nation longed to call her its own; but the mighty masses of the Alps, extending along the northern border, a large tract of French territory (part of ancient Gaul), almost the whole of Switzerland, and an extended reach along the southern boundary of Austria, made a formidable barrier against encroaching strangers. We know that long before Rome was founded every part of the country was inhabited by wandering tribes: Germanic peoples from the north, Asiatic and Greeks from the south, the Celtic peoples in the west, and the Slavonic in the east, all these wanderers being only half civilized. They lived on their sheep and cattle and cultivated the land in a rude way.

In the days of wandering tribes, the name "Italy"

meant only the extreme southern point of the peninsula. But gradually the people settled in separate divisions, or states, and after a time the name was applied to the whole country.

These early Italic tribes at first formed four divisions: the Latins, settling in Latium, in central Italy, south of the river Tiber; the Oscans, occupying the land extending southward from Latium, on the west; the Sabellians, or Sabines, who lived east and south of the Latins and the Oscans, along the slopes of the Apennines; and the Umbrians, settling north of the Sabellians. A people apart from these were those of Etruria, a strange and mysterious tribe, gloomy, fierce, superstitious, yet civilized far beyond the other tribes, building great walls, fine roads, and imposing tombs.

ITS FOUR HISTORICAL PERIODS.

The history of the consolidation of these peoples into the Roman State will be found in this volume under the heading "The Roman Empire." The history of Italy is perhaps more difficult to present in brief form than that of any other country, for almost every city has its own particular and celebrated story; and as the histories of all the nations of Europe are connected in some way with that of this peninsula, Italy's own history may be considered as divided into four periods: Conquest, the Communes, Decadence, and Unification. In the first period the barbarians from the north, having passed the confines of the empire, entered Italy. Under Alaric they sacked Rome and later destroyed Aquileia, of the fugitives from which territory you will learn in the story of Venice. Under the German king, Odoacer, the barbarians put an end to the Roman Empire, which was not reorganized until after three stormy centuries had passed over Italy, in which time it was successively under the rule of Ostrogoths, Greeks, and the French. In 800 the French

king, Charlemagne, assisted by the Pope, assumed sway over the Holy Roman Empire. This empire lasted only until Charlemagne's death, however, and after that Italy suffered for many years the tyranny of feudal lords, civil wars, invasions from Hungary and from the Saracens, corruption and barbarism.

THE GUELPHS AND THE GHIBELLINES.

The Holy Roman Empire, again restored, in 962, by Otho I, tried to curtail the numbers and the powers of the clergy and the nobles, which resulted in many of the towns and cities breaking away from imperial control and establishing free, independent governments within themselves. At last the quarrels between Church and Empire became so bitter in the twelfth century that two parties arose, called the Guelphs and the Ghibellines, the former being adherents of the popes, the latter of the emperors. The curse of civil strife that was brought upon Italy by these two warring factions lasted more than three hundred years, which saw the rise, dominion, and fall of many cities and temporarily powerful leaders, and gradually the whole people of Italy drifted toward an age of despotism. By 1350 the country had become a battlefield in which foreign ambition exercised its worst tendencies, while civilization and self-respect were slowly dying. The demoralized land was plundered and terrorized by foreign invaders, the noble House of Savoy alone, in the midst of this disorder and corruption, maintaining itself through strength and courage of two of its members—Amadeus I and Amadeus VIII. In Florence the haughty and powerful Medici family rose and formed a ruling and despotic dynasty. Cosimo the Elder, of this house, in 1429 assumed the title "father of his country," and his successors exercised the authority of kings. Meantime the Turks were gaining power in the East, threatening the provinces of Italy and the peace of

all Europe. After several attempts to take the Christian city of Constantinople, the Turks succeeded, in 1453; they drove the Christians out of Turkey, and destroyed the power of Italy in that country.

Toward the close of this century the discovery of the New World, and of the passage around the Cape of Good Hope, followed by the explorations of Cortez, Pizarro, and Balboa, of John Cabot and Amerigo Vespucci, turned commerce away from Italy into new channels. Nothing was left to her but the glory of literature, science, and art, and in these she had no rival. In 1495 the French, under Charles VIII, overran the entire peninsula, and later its dominion was disputed between the French and the Spaniards, while religious authority was brought to its lowest state under the infamous Borgia family, one of whom sat upon the papal throne. The French were driven out temporarily in 1511. But four years later the French king, Francis I, crossed the Alps and engaged in fierce conflicts with the Emperor Charles V for the imperial crown and the control of Italy. He was captured in the first battle and kept prisoner for a time. Hostilities broke out at once after his release and continued at intervals until 1542, when Italy gained the final victory. The period of these wars covered the Reformation in the Catholic Church, the siege of Florence, and the battle of Lepanto in Greece, in which Italy and Spain gave the final blow to Turkish power.

A UNITED KINGDOM RULED BY THE HOUSE OF SAVOY.

In the seventeenth century the ancient States of Italy had fallen to the lowest point; the House of Savoy, however, still shone brightly through the deeds of her heroic sons, three Charles Emmanuels, and Victor Amadeus.

Throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Italy remained the subject of warfare among foreign powers. Her glory then was in the magnificent

art and literature produced by Italians in the Renaissance period of the sixteenth century. Venice was still independent, though her power had departed; Genoa and Modena were under French control; Naples and Sicily were ruled by the Spanish, Tuscany by Austria, while the popes controlled a large territory running as far northward as the river Po.

But a new life began to stir in the veins of Italians after the French Revolution of 1793, and in spite of the high-handed way in which Napoleon disposed of Italian states and cities during his meteoric career, the Revolution had given rise to an intellectual and moral movement which, after many struggles, at last freed Italy from the yoke of all foreign powers, and in 1861 again bound together all her States into a united kingdom, under the rule of a prince of the indomitable House of Savoy.

ITS MODERN DIVISIONS.

Italy today may be considered as divided into three sections: the northern, embracing Venetia, Lombardy, Piedmont, and Liguria; the central section, which includes the ancient Etruscan, Latium, and the Umbrian divisions; and the southern, which takes in the Samnite, Apulian, and Calabrian districts, with Sardinia and Sicily, the islands in the Bay of Naples, the Lipari group and the Tolmiti Islands in the Adriatic Sea. The kingdom is now divided, in a political sense, as the United States is divided, into sixty-nine provinces, having 8,254 townships.

In all the small towns, as well as in the cities, there are free elementary schools; and all the towns having more than 4,000 inhabitants have schools of a more advanced grade. The higher education is provided for by institutes, high schools, and twenty-one State universities.

Almost one third of the poorer people cultivate the land, and about one sixth are occupied in various

manufactures. The poor are very badly off, and there are thousands of paupers and beggars from one end of the country to the other. The average pay of a farm worker is about one lira (19 cents) a day, and that of a mechanic about twice that sum. Few of the working class ever eat meat; their food is chiefly a coarse bread (sometimes made of chestnuts), fruit, vegetables, cheese, and macaroni.

ITALY'S POWERFUL ARMY AND NAVY.

Italy's standing army numbers 225,000 men, with a reserve force of 300,000. As soon as a youth attains the age of twenty, whatever may be his rank in life, he is liable to be called upon to enter the army, this liability lasting until he is thirty-nine years old. He must first serve three years with the colors (the cavalry serving four), and then he is liable to be called on for six years more of duty; after this he joins the active militia for four years, and then the territorial militia for the remaining six years. No doubt this prospect at first thought would seem attractive to a youth of martial tastes; but when we consider that such service would take all the years of his young manhood (in case he is called on to serve on the whole term), it seems probable that this law has much to do with the heavy emigration from Italy, whose people in foreign lands number about five million. In 1910 alone, more than 215,000 Italian immigrants landed on the shores of the United States, and many of her sons emigrated to Brazil, to work in the mines.

The peculiar formation of Italy, with a seacoast so extensive, makes necessary a strong naval defence, and she possesses some of the largest ships in the world, including seven battleships of the first, second, and third classes, five armored cruisers, thirteen gunboats, seventy-five torpedo-boats, and thirty-three destroyers, with a naval force of 29,000 men, besides about 4,000 employed in the coast service.

ST. PAUL'S BEYOND THE WALLS, ROME.—Begun in the 4th century, this great basilica was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1823. The interior is 390 feet long, 195 feet wide, and 75 feet high, and contains 138 huge monolith columns. The body of St. Paul is said to be interred here.

ITS MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS AND ITS PRODUCTS.

Among the Alpine heights, 6,000 feet above the sea, rises the river Po, 360 miles long, the largest river in Italy, which has not many streams of any considerable size. From the western end of the Alps the Apennine Mountains begin, extending like a backbone throughout the peninsula.

The widest varieties of fruits and flowers abound in Italy, the cold Alpine region producing trees and plants like those found near the frigid zone; while central and southern Italy produce oranges, lemons, date-palms, grapes, figs, olives, rice and maize, in rich profusion. Wild animals roam the woodlands: the boar, the lynx, the wildcat, and the fox; and occasionally wolves are found in the deep forest. In these woods, too, are seen every variety of bird belonging to other parts of Europe, besides many found in tropical countries.

If the lakes at the north are among the rarest of natural beauties, no less charming are the celebrated islands lying south and west of the peninsula—Sicily, Sardinia, Elba, and the three fairy sister isles of romance and history—Capri, Ischia, and Monte Cristo.

SOME HISTORIC CITIES OF ITALY.

Next to China, Italy is the largest silk-producing country in the world, the silkworm being reared in more than five thousand towns, employing 175,000 persons. Whole families join in the work, planting and tending the mulberry-trees, on which the silkworm feeds, watching over and supplying with food the busy little creatures from the time when they hatch from the egg till they roll themselves up into cocoons.

The Italian Lakes are among the most famous of the world, because of the exquisite beauty of their surrounding scenery. In another part of this volume you will find a detailed description of their charms.

Besides the group of three of these lakes in northern Italy—Como, Lugano, and Maggiore—a fourth, Lago di Garda, also lies in the North, at some distance from the famous trio. This is the largest of all the northern lakes. Three great provinces meet on its shores, the Trentino, Venetia, and Lombardy. On the banks of the Garda, Catullus, the great Roman poet lived, and he wrote of it in some of his most beautiful lines. Virgil, too, sang of it in his *Æneid,* and Dante in his *Divine Comedy.* But powerful hands fought for its possession through long years, and the history of the lake is more stormy than its waters. In later years, not only did the wars of Napoleon rage along its shores, but there were social uprisings of the people called the Revolution of 1848, and that of 1860, in the time of the patriot Garibaldi, who strove so hard to establish a permanent republic in his country.

From Santa Lucia, at the junction of the railways approaching the city of Verona, in the province of Venetia, we have a charming prospect of the city where Dante lived in exile when driven from his beloved Florence; where Romeo and Juliet lived their brief period of love. The ancient Guisti Garden is the pride of Verona. In it grow cypress trees as tall as the highest towers of the city, and older than its oldest palaces. In a courtyard that formerly belonged to a convent stands the red granite sarcophagus which once contained the remains of the immortal lovers, Romeo and Juliet. Its cover, on which the names were easily read, has disappeared, and for a long time the empty sarcophagus was used as a common drinking-trough. But now it is carefully guarded, and reverent hands lay wreaths upon it.

Traveling toward Venice from Verona, we find another town rich in artistic treasures, though at first unimposing in appearance. This is Padua, an odd-looking place, whose narrow nooks and alleys contrast with enormous domes and towers. The narrow paths

lead us into great squares and wider streets, but all are quiet and look deserted. At last we come to the Piazza of the Signoria (Lords), where the Past looms up in all its ancient pride. This is the city that Livy, the great historian, called his home, and Padua's chief glory is in her brilliant son, and in the pious Saint Anthony, whose bones have lain for centuries in the colossal church bearing his name. About the time of the birth of Christ, Padua was the largest town in northern Italy. To her fame for piety and for military strength was added the renown of literary culture. Her great university had its beginning in 1222, and to this day it draws to itself studious youth from all Europe.

NAPOLEON'S GIFT TO THE VENETIANS.

In another part of this volume we have told the story of the marvelous rise, glory, and fall of the city of waters—Venice, the unique, the wonder-city of the Adriatic. Fascinated at first by the spell of her rippling waters, we think her beauty lacks nothing of perfection; but after a while we realize that one charm is wanting—that of natural vegetation. If we wish to enjoy a glimpse of green trees and grass in Venice, we must go to the Public Gardens, or to some of the little islands near by. The Gardens were created by the public-spirited and indefatigable Napoleon when he was master of Italy. He was the originator of many improvements for the good of the people in cities where he obtained control. In some of the old towns and cities he cleansed and purified their darkest corners, built new and fine roads and aqueducts, and showed the people how to improve their condition. In Venice he pulled down hundreds of old buildings in order to make space for these gardens, thus making the Venetians what was to them a most rare and remarkable present—a solid piece of dry land, planted with flowers, and having a promenade among the trees!

MANTUA AND MILAN.

The old city of Mantua, like many other ancient towns, has a record that is of more interest and importance than that of many States. It, too, had its great families; it, too, had its heroes, whose memories are immortal. As Verona boasts her Catullus, Padua her Livy, so here in Mantua the people's pride is Virgil, the great poet, who sings in his *Æneid* of the river Mincio, which flows from the Garda Lake to Mantua and joins the river Po. Mantua had her share in the storm that followed the destruction of the old Roman empire; but in the later days of her renewed power and splendor, a renowned painter, Guilio Romano, illumined her principal palaces, and was the honored friend of Mantua's master, the Duke of Gonzaga; for not only nobility of birth but the aristocracy of intellect commanded respect in those old Italian republics. Many leaders struggled for the mastery of Mantua until, in the fourteenth century, she came into the hands of the Gonzagas, a family almost as powerful as the Medici of Florence, producing many generals, statesmen, churchmen, and men of letters. The Gonzagas ruled Mantua for three hundred years; strong and brave, liberal in encouraging the arts and education.

Mantua is built on two islands in the Mincio River, which is so wide here that it surrounds the city like a lake. The old town now possesses the strongest fortress in Italy. Its tremendous walls rise from the water, grim and defiant. Strong bastions are built deep in the water, which is crossed by iron drawbridges, and every gate is armed. In all the wars of Mantua, the enemy had to make great sacrifices before that fortress.

Throughout Italy's turbulent history the city of Milan has been the central point for all the storms of war to beat upon. But through all her troubles the arts and sciences flourished in her midst, and today she is one of the liveliest of cities, full of modern life and business, with a population of 490,000. Of her

ST. JOHN LATERAN, ROME.—This church, begun in the fourth century, is built upon the site of a palace of the Lateranus family, hence its name. The statues surmounting it, representing Christ and ten Saints, are 20 feet high. Until a recent date, the Popes were crowned here.

stirring history, her marvelous cathedral, of whose exquisite architecture, carried out in white marble, some one has said that it represented "frozen music," we have more to say in another part of this volume.

TURIN.

Now we are on the banks of the river Po, in the busy city of Turin (province of Piedmont), which, in spite of the fact that it originated in the time of Julius Cæsar, is entirely modern in appearance, and is a center for the manufacture of silks, ribbons, laces, matches, leather goods, and tools. The only building representing the Middle Ages is the huge Madama Palace, with enormous towers—a curious structure, appearing like a gloomy fortress on three sides, with a fourth suitable to a princely castle. The royal palace has splendid gardens, and the finest collection of armor in Europe, among which is the sword worn by the great Napoleon in one of his famous battles. Turin was the capital of the duchy of Savoy, and later of the kingdom of Sardinia, from the beginning of Napoleon's reign until 1861. From 1861 to 1865 it was the capital of the united kingdom of Italy, and then the seat of government was transferred to Florence for a period of six years. The University of Turin ranks high, and has a library of more than 200,000 volumes.

GENOA AND HER GREAT SON.

One of Italy's most romantic cities is Genoa, called "the Superb" (in the province of Liguria). She is like the statue of a queen, in robes of marble whiteness, her breast adorned with roses. She has lost her former world-wide power, but never will she lose the glory of her past. At her wharves, more than four hundred and fifty years ago, a lively boy, son of a wool-comber of Cogoleto, a few miles away, used to play in the water, talk to sailors, and gaze over the blue seas, watching wistfully the ships coming into

the busy port from foreign lands, watching them as they sailed away. When he was fourteen he ran away to sea, and took part in the most daring and dangerous adventures. He studied much, too, besides fighting and sailing from one country to another, and formed a plan to brave the unknown dangers of the Atlantic Ocean in order to find a shorter way than any then known to the eastern coast of Asia, which, besides the great advantage of convenience, would prove that the world was round, not flat, as almost everyone believed, except the really wise men. You all know what he did discover—the islands near the land that in time became the United States of America. And at the gates of Genoa stands a splendid statue of her greatest son, Columbus.

The view of Genoa from the sea is a picture of surpassing beauty. From the edge of the gulf rises terrace after terrace up the steep slope of the mountain, covered with white houses, palaces, and churches. Often we come to a street whose whole length is a flight of steps climbing the hill, up and down which donkeys go clumping, with curious effect. In the harbor the forest of masts show the flags of all countries, the one most often seen being, of course, Italy's own flag, the three perpendicular bars of green, white, and red, with a shield and a cross, surmounted by a crown, on the central white bar.

Beside the water is heard a babel of all languages, for the traffic of Genoa is immense, as it was in days gone by. The dreamy idleness of many Italian towns is not seen here, for the Genoese are an energetic people. Shipbuilding is one of the great industries; beautiful furniture is made here; and Genoa's silks and velvets have a world-wide fame.

CITIES OF ANCIENT DAYS.

Florence, the "city of the Lily," home of art, is one of the dreams of students and travelers which,

when realized by actual vision, seems almost too beautiful to be true. Her story is told in another section of this volume.

The cities in the district of ancient Emilia flourished centuries before Christ, and upon its soil the dying Roman Empire drew its last breath, making way for the new era that was to rise out of its ashes. Among the ancient towns is Parma, home of the immortal artist Correggio; Ferrara, the scene of the youth of the poet Tasso; Bologna, so rich as to be called Bologna the Fat, with its two strange leaning towers; and Ravenna, the most renowned city of central Italy, the spot that holds the mortal remains of the immortal Dante, the place where the tomb of the old Gothic king, Theodoric, still stands, the treasury of all Europe for the study of early Christian art.

Fifty miles west of Florence, in the province of Pisa, lies its capital city, of the same name. It is one of the old walled cities of Roman times, but is of uncertain origin. Under the first Roman emperors she rose to great prosperity, but suffered the usual fate of Italian cities after the barbarian invasions of the fifth century. In the ninth century, however, she revived, and became powerful in commerce and the peaceful arts. But her growing wealth excited the envy of Genoa, Florence, and other republics, and they fell upon unhappy Pisa, which was forced to submit to the rule of Florence. Since then she has lain idly dreaming, a city asleep on the sandy plain, in the softest air, a few miles from the sea. All speaks of departed splendor. Even the exquisite buildings, erected in Pisa's time of glory—the Duomo, the Baptistery, and that wonder of the world, the Leaning Tower, seem likely to sink into ruin. It is hard to say which is the grandest—the Duomo, with its precious works of art, the marvelous Leaning Tower (179 feet high, and 13 feet 8 inches out of the perpendicular), with its rows upon rows of delicate columns,

or the circular Baptistery, covered with daintiest Gothic carving.

THE ITALIAN LAKES.

In all ages there have been certain magical spots to which Nature has given a special charm; places celebrated by poets and artists and immortalized in the hearts of men. One of these enchanting regions is found in the northern part of Italy, where Nature, within the compass of a few miles, has worked one of her masterpieces, or rather a triple masterpiece, in Lakes Como, Lugano, and Maggiore.

JOYOUS COMO.

Como is a long, deep basin lying at the southern foot of the Alps, more than forty miles around, and divided into two arms, called Lecco and Como, from the names of towns on their shores. Como is the headquarters of all the business of the surrounding country. A steamer makes daily trips the whole length of the lake, and the scene at this landing-place is lively and gay, with crowds of people coming and going, while from many little villages at which the steamer does not stop little rowboats come bounding over the sparkling water, carrying passengers to catch the vessel at one of its landing-places.

Here are the modern summer homes of wealthy Italians, and famous buildings whose romance is of the past. Villa after villa rises from the midst of dark green foliage; the entrances to cool, vine-draped grottos are lapped by the blue waters; a little white chapel gleams in the sunlight from a hillside, and the picturesque road winds sharply around the rocky heights.

Among the celebrated buildings on Como's shores is the Duomo, one of the finest cathedrals in northern Italy; also the Villa Pliniana, the residence of the great writer Pliny, who died trying to save the people

in the volcanic eruption that destroyed Pompeii and Herculaneum in A.D. 79. It stands among peaceful groves on the heights near Torno. In its courtyard still splashes the wonderful fountain of which Pliny wrote that it rose and fell three times a day, with regular ebb and flow, like the ocean tides. Another famous dwelling is the Villa d'Este, built by Cardinal Pompeo Gallio, who was a poor boy, son of a fisherman. After he became a prince of the Church, in the sixteenth century, he returned to his boyhood home and built a grand palace on the spot where his father's hut had stood. Two hundred years later the building was the residence of Queen Caroline, consort of George IV, whose royal husband had banished her from England.

The finest of all the villas that surround the crystal lake is the Villa Carlotta, which contains priceless treasures of art, one of which is the original of Canova's exquisite marble group of Cupid and Psyche, so familiar to us all. Bellagio, however, commands the finest view, situated at the point where the two arms of the lake divide. All these villas have something of classic grace; the paths wind among marble terraces where stand snowy statues gleaming against the deep green of orange trees; the gardens display all colors, from the glow of the rose to the purple of the violet; and as a soft accompaniment of all other sounds, we hear the rippling current of the lake as it splashes on the golden sands.

THE BLUE WATERS OF LUGANO.

We must pursue our way to the second of the wonderful group; and soon we arrive at Lugano, a lake 889 feet above sea level, fourteen miles long, and covering an area of eighteen miles. Only a few villages on Lake Lugano belong to Italy; the larger part of its shores is in Switzerland, and the people we see around us are a mingling of Italian and Swiss. The

landscape here shows a similar blending; the beauty of the south is lavished on this lake, yet in its background rise bare, rugged peaks, with great gray rocks, as in some mountainous region in the heart of Switzerland. The orange and olive bloom around these pale blue waters; vines are weighed down with richest fruit; but far above them tower woodlands of dark pine-trees—truly, a northern forest under a southern sky.

The shore line of Lugano is very irregular; we are continually turning sharp curves, each of which unfolds new beauties before us; and suddenly we come upon an enormous bridge, spanning the lake from the village of Bissone to Melide. Here the waters are only a few fathoms deep, but at other places their depth is almost a thousand feet.

MAJESTIC MAGGIORE.

Leaving this smallest lake of the group, nestling between the two larger ones, we set out for the largest of all—Maggiore, the grand and majestic, thirty-nine miles long, from half a mile to five miles wide, 646 feet above sea level, and more than a thousand feet deep in many places. Its northern shore touches the foot of the rugged Switzerland mountains, but as it flows southward toward the sunny plains of Lombardy, the colors around it grow richer, the air becomes soft and warm, and fruit and flowers riot in southern luxuriance.

The shores of Lake Maggiore are thickly built up with simple cottages, stately modern palaces, and ancient ruins that recall the early Romans, who here built temples to their pagan gods. All the little towns that surround the great lake have a quaint old-fashioned air; the houses have open arcades in front and charming gardens. Wild volcanic forces long ago formed the chain of rocks that crown the shore near Pallanza, and continue under the blue waters of Maggiore; and wherever a peak of these great rocks

THE ARCH OF TITUS.—This arch, erected after the death of Titus, A. D. 81, commemorates the victory over Jerusalem. Its bas-reliefs, representing the looting of the Temple at Jerusalem, are its chief interest.

rises above the surface it forms one of those exquisite little islets that lie like fairy gardens in the midst of the waters.

THE SMALLEST REPUBLIC IN THE WORLD.

Beside the Adriatic, where once was the Flaminian Way, now runs the railway for miles along the shore. On one hand is the blue sea, on the other are blooming valleys and hills, backed by higher mountains from whose heights old battlemented towns look down. Among these, none is so interesting as San Marino, the oldest and smallest independent republic in the world. It is perched far up on a steep ledge of the rocky Apennines, and the entire republic covers only thirty-two square miles, has only five towns, and a population of eight thousand. The little capital (also called San Marino) is said to have been founded in the fourth century, and in its ancient dwellings are furniture and household utensils of great antiquity. For centuries have generations of the same families lived here, proud, happy, and independent, with a standing army of thirty-eight officers and about a thousand men. Although the republic administers its own laws, it placed itself years ago under the protection of Italy.

NAPLES.

Among the high mountains of the Abruzzi, forests once grew luxuriantly, but reckless cutting of the trees for many years has produced a cold and barren country, the abode of direst poverty and desolation. Now, however, railways penetrate among these lonely hills, and the curse of idleness and hopeless misery is gradually giving way to industry and comfort.

When we reach the famed city called Neapolis in ancient times, but known to all the world as Naples, we find not only the choicest spot in all Italy as to climate and scenery, but discover that its heaped-up richness of attractions receives its tone from the

waters that caress its shores. Amethyst and turquoise are the colors of the Bay of Naples, and the curving line of the shore resembles a circlet of emerald and gold enclosing lapis lazuli; it is like a giant ring, surmounted at the head by the cone of Mount Vesuvius near by, blazing at night like a magnificent ruby. When we gaze at its flames shooting skyward, or rolling liquid fire into the sea, it is hard to imagine that Spartacus, one of Rome's gladiators in ancient times, when he led his fellow-victims to revolt against their masters, made his headquarters in the very crater of Vesuvius. The story of Naples, and the three fair sister isles near her, is told elsewhere in this volume.

POVERTY AND DESOLATION.

The province of Calabria, in the extreme south, is a desolate region, with only a few cities and towns; most of these are merely miserable groups of houses, looking as if they had tumbled down a mountainside. The huts are without windows, the streets are unpaved and filthy. Here and there, however, we come upon a more prosperous-looking town, with large vineyards. At vintage-time the people turn out for almost their only joyous days, to gather the grapes. By dawn they come flocking into the vineyards—sun-burned girls in gay red and blue skirts and black bodices, stalwart youths with flashing eyes and beautiful teeth, carrying baskets on their arms and heads. By sunrise all are hard at work, carrying grapes to the wine-press. Song and laughter sound throughout the vineyard; and at evening each receives the day's scanty pay and a basket of grapes. On Sundays they dance and sing all day long, enjoying to the full one of the few pleasures of their hard lives.

A REALM OF ETERNAL SUMMER.

Now we are near the golden fairyland of the antique world, the sunny isle of Sicily, to which all

BRACCIO NUOVO.—This hall of the Vatican, in Rome, contains many portrait busts of Emperors and warriors. There are also many statues, unearthed during the last century, among them the famous "Athlete," discovered in 1849.

nations come to behold her meadows blooming with perennial beauty. The ancient peoples said that the giants called Titans broke off this mass of earth from the mainland, thus opening a passage from the western Italian sea to the waters of Greece. For a Titanic lighthouse they set up the flame-breathing Mount Etna. Then the smiling goddess Ceres scattered seeds over the land, and other genial deities united to make it the fairest spot of earth.

In Sicily we find the true, bright realm of eternal summer; the only trace of winter is the snow that rests perpetually on the summit of Etna. Roses bloom the year round, and all the luxuriant products of earth are poured forth by Mother Nature with open hands.

The manner of life among the farmers and fishermen is rude and primitive, the former using plows and other implements of the same kind their ancestors used for countless generations.

The first inhabitants to develop the resources of the island, which covers almost a thousand square miles, were Greeks; it rose to a high rank of prosperity, but became a disputed prize for centuries among warring nations—Carthaginians, Romans, barbarians, Germans, Saracens, Normans, Spaniards, and French. At last the unhappy country sank exhausted into a state of passive stagnation; and today two races divide the possession of the island, the Italian in the north, and the African-Saracenic in the south.

Palermo, the chief city, lies on the northern coast, in a deep bay called the Golden Shell. Its appearance is quite modern, for it has long been the resort of foreign tourists; and the manufacture of gloves and essences keeps a great many work-people busy.

UNHAPPY MESSINA.

Another flourishing town was Messina, situated on the narrow strait that divides Sicily from Italy. Its

harbor was the best in Sicily, opening into two seas, and was a central point for the ships of all countries. The town was bright, busy, and cheerful, its population numbering 90,000, with palaces, villas, churches, a fine university, rich vineyards and orange groves. But on the 28th day of December, 1908, one of the most terrible earthquakes ever known destroyed a great part of the city, and also the town of Reggio, on the Italian side of the Strait of Messina, killing hundreds of persons in both places. From this calamity Messina is recovering slowly; for, strange as it seems, although the towns in this region have been ruined again and again by the upheavals of earth proceeding from their beautiful but dangerous neighbor, Etna, again and again the people return, after one of these catastrophes, to live in the same places.

The Empire of Japan.

A LAND OF BEAUTY.

IN former days, Japan was said to lie off the coast of China, at the far eastern end of the world; but to a twentieth century American all this is changed, for Japan lies to the far west of the United States. Even the Japanese conceive things differently from their ancestors; for today Japan has for her northern neighbors the Russians in Saghalien and Siberia, and on her southern borders Americans and Filipinos, while Formosa and Korea are part of the empire of the Mikado. About four thousand islands make up the whole Empire, of which thirteen are reckoned as great islands or important groups; of these the greatest is Hondo, the main island, on which live nearly four-fifths of the Japanese. Indeed, the three islands of Hondo, Shikoku, Kiushiu, contain nine-tenths of the people. The other islands, or groups,

are Sado, Oki, Awaji, Iki, and Tsuchima—all in the Sea of Japan. Yezo, Chishima, or the Thousand Isles, are in the north. Of other little archipelagos, there are the Bonin (meaning No Man's) having twenty islands, the Loo Choo, or Long Rope, with fifty-five islands, and Formosa and the Pescadores. The names of the last two were given by the Portuguese and mean respectively Beautiful and Fishermen's. The northern islands are farther north than any one of the United States, and the southernmost are in the Torrid Zone. Altogether the archipelago of Japan contains about 163,000 square miles, and is thus slightly larger than California. There are now, including Koreans, nearly seventy millions of persons under the rule of Japan's Emperor, a population greater than that of all South America.

The face of the country is for the most part one of extreme beauty. In America, the glacier has been the tool in the Almighty's hand for the shaping of the landscape, but the volcano has been the active agent in upraising those partially submerged ranges of mountains which now form the land we call Japan. There are more than fifty active volcanoes in the islands and earthquakes are of almost daily occurrence in some parts. Fuji, the peerless, is 12,365 feet high, Nuitaka, the New High Mountain in Formosa, has an altitude of 13,595 feet. Often the scenery of the mountains and less settled regions is harsh and repellent; but the landscape which has been smoothed by human labor for many centuries, that is, where the population is densest, is lovely. The gullies between the hills are terraced. As it is almost impossible to preserve good roads, owing to the velocity which the steepness of the mountains gives to the streams, wheeled vehicles are uncommon except in or near towns. The valleys and cultivated plains, the latter usually small in area and divided into small fields, are separated by low walls of earth. Along the paths

and roads are many wayside shrines, red *torii,* or sacred gateways, pagodas, and many other marks of an old civilized community. Japan is an evergreen country and the abundance of moisture keeps vegetation looking fresh during most of the year. Snow lies on the loftiest mountains from early autumn to May. The Japanese replant when they cut down the trees, so that the hillsides are nearly always covered with timber. Most of the American flowers and fruits are to be seen, and on the other hand hundreds of Japanese trees, plants, and flowers have, during the last three hundred years, been taken beyond seas and made to feel at home in the gardens of Europe and America, so that we are accustomed to asters, azaleas, chrysanthemums, japonicas, morning-glories, bamboo, and other floral beauties, whose original home is in the Far East. The Japanese are very fond of flowers, and especially of their blooming cherry trees, the flowers of which are delicious. These trees are raised, not for their fruit, but for the beauty and perfume of their blossoms.

THE PEOPLE OF JAPAN.

The Japanese are a very young nation. It was not until about 1192 that there was formed out of many tribes one body of people, looking much alike, and having the same dress, food, law, manners, traditions, and religion, which makes a nation. In a word, these islanders became "Japanese" about the same time that the mixed tribes of Britain became sufficiently mingled to be called the "English" people. In the different parts of the Japanese Empire, we discern the various types out of whom the typical Japanese has been formed. Marco Polo introduced the word "Japan" into Europe and first told about the country, in his great book, in 1298.

In the Empire still live a great many kinds of people, from simple savages to gentlemen and ladies

who are as refined and educated as any in the world. The Ainu, a white race of straight-eyed people, with big noses and beards, and speaking an Aryan language like ourselves and our ancestors, once inhabited the whole group of islands, just as the Indians lived over all North America. In Japan, as in other countries, the names of the aborigines for the mountains and the rivers still linger. The fragments of the Ainu and kindred tribes not absorbed into the general body of the Japanese people now live in the northern islands and number about 18,000. The second set of immigrants into the islands, and probably the largest in number and most continuous in their arrivals, were of Malay stock. Many customs, words, and ideas from the South Pacific have become part of Japanese life, and the great body of people look more like Polynesians than like Chinese. Another line of immigration in ancient times was Semitic, and this racial strain is distinctly noticeable in the language and in the faces of many Japanese. The last immigration, and probably the most influential, was from the highlands of eastern Asia. It is a mistake to call the Japanese Mongolians. Not till quite late in their history did the islanders know anything about China.

Today there is a great variety of conditions among the Mikado's subjects, who include the savage copper-colored head-hunters and the Chinese in sub-tropical Formosa, the Loo Choo islanders, and the Ainu and other sorts of men in the cold north. Socially, the people are divided into nobles, gentry, and commons. The gentry, including for the most part the army officers, officeholders and policemen, used to be of the samurai class, who wore silk clothes and two swords, paid no taxes, and were retainers of the feudal barons. The tendency is now toward democracy. Today people of samurai descent and commoners intermarry, and the schools, courts, army, navy, civil service, and all lines of success and promotion are equally open to all

classes. Japan is governed as a constitutional monarchy, with codes of civil and criminal law, under a very liberal constitution given by the Emperor in 1889.

HOW THE PEOPLE LIVE.

The houses are generally of wood, with light frames, but with heavy tree-trunks for the roofs, which are shingled or tiled. There are no cellars and the floor of the houses is lifted a foot or more above the ground. Such light and flexible frames enable the houses to withstand the frequent earthquakes. The floor is covered with matting made into sections, each about six feet long, and three or four feet wide, with a black border. The Japanese, being very clean, do not come into the house with sandals or clogs, boots or shoes, which have been worn out doors, but wear within doors thick-soled socks. In summer they wear light clothes, and in winter heavy padded ones. They warm their rooms with braziers, or bowls of charcoal fire. As there are few thick or heavy walls, the rooms are divided by sliding screens set in grooves, the house at night being covered up with outer storm-doors, also sliding in grooves. The beds are thick quilts laid on the floor with curious box-like pillows, and the bedding is put away in closets during the day. Besides sitting, sleeping, and eating apartments, there is the bath-room, with a high tub of hot water, in which, after washing the body, the bather sits to the chin, enjoying the heat and refreshment. There are eight hundred public bath-houses in Tokyo alone. In jail, prisoners that are disobedient are punished by not being allowed to bathe daily, and bath-tubs and towels are part of the outfit of soldiers and sailors.

The chief food is rice and fish, with pickled radishes, and beans, but the Japanese have a great variety of sugared or candied things to eat. They use chop-sticks in handling and eating their food. Everything for the meal is cut and prepared in the kitchen,

ready to serve without carving, on little square tables, one for each individual. Tea is the usual drink for everybody, and sake, brewed from rice, is for those who like it, very weak or very strong.

There are many strange things about Japan and the Japanese, but when one has lived there awhile, they seem very reasonable, and no more odd, especially praiseworthy, or particularly idiotic, than are the things which we are accustomed to do. The people are very fond of outdoor life and spend a good deal of time in going to the markets, the temples, and the famous places, or on picnics, and in celebration of festivals, of which there is a regular round for the whole year. Of the population, the majority are farmers and live in villages, raising food crops in summer, and silk-worms in the spring time; but there are about four million fishing-folk, and probably ten million mechanics, or industrial producers; for Japan is slowly changing from a purely agricultural people to a nation of manufacturers, who are dependent upon the products of their mills and factories to get the food which can not be raised in Japan. Whereas, in 1870, there was not a chimney in Osaka, but only kitchen smoke-holes, while household industry was the rule, there are now scores of tall brick chimneys and cotton mills employing thousands of operatives.

In the old days, when Japan was shut up from the world, there were frequent and terrible famines; but now with steamers, railways, and better methods of agriculture, and the people being able also to buy food from other countries, Japan has little trouble in feeding her population; while in the unoccupied land, Saghalien, Yezo, Formosa, and in Korea, she has work enough to occupy all her able-bodied men for a century to come.

No people in all the world are more artistic than the Japanese, and the common folks are passionately fond of things beautiful. But, besides her art work

and manufactures of artistic products, which Japan has made for ages, she can now build her own battleships, arsenals, railways, and factories, and equip the engines of her own civilization, in most part, from her own foundries and workshops.

THE DRESS OF THE JAPANESE.

In dress the Japanese are very sensible. In the army and navy, and among most business men of the cities, the men wear clothes like ours, which, when at home, they usually take off, calling it their "armor," and put on the more congenial dress of their native country. Our western clothes are undoubtedly better for out door activities, while their national costume is more comfortable in hours of ease indoors. This consists, for the men, of one long inside garment in summer, and as cold weather comes on, others are added. The people measure degrees of cold less by the thermometer than by saying it is "two coats," "three coats," or "four coats" cold, and in the springtime they have a sort of minor festival, meaning taking off (extra cotton) clothes. From the waist downward, a pair of wide-flowing trousers, and for the upper part of the figure a coat with wide sleeves, on which, on breast and back, is embroidered the family crest, complete the costume. In old days, each of the four classes was strictly designated by a special dress of specified material. Except for pilgrims and farmers, head-gear was then the exception, rather than the rule, but now the derby and silk hat are common, and women wear bonnets. The feminine costume consists of one or more long garments, with underclothing, all held together by a wide belt, and the hair is dressed very prettily. In old days one could tell from her coiffure whether the wearer were maid, wife, widow, or one who never would marry again. Young girls wear a red petticoat, and with children bright colors are the rule, the dress being more subdued in color as age advances. The former custom of black-

HECTAGONAL TEMPLE, KIOTO, JAPAN.—One of the many in this famous "City of Temples." Their numerous quaint idols and decorations, beautifully-toned bronze bells and odd ceremonies attract to these temples many visitors from other lands.

ing the teeth, gilding the lips, and shaving off the eyebrows of married women, have for the most part passed away, and the hair is worn in much the same fashion as in other countries.

THE PLEASURES OF THE PEOPLE.

Japan is called the paradise of children; the little folks are greatly indulged and have good times, though obedience to parents is one of the virtues insisted upon and practised.

The people are light-hearted, pleasure-loving folk. Besides picnics, visits to the temples, pilgrimages, and a host of outdoor methods of pleasure on land and water, and flower-viewing and fire-fly catching in summer, the boys and young men have adopted the modern athletic sports, and matches with American teams that cross the Pacific are frequent. The games and sports of Japanese children, with marbles, tops, kites, battledore and shuttlecock, hoops, poles, etc., are very numerous. Besides household fun and frolic, the people enjoy themselves at the theater, wrestling matches, flower festivals, and in a hundred other ways, many of which represent mythology and folk lore. The oldest and most popular exhibition is that of the Lion of Korea, which represents the dancing of Uzume before the cave in which the Sun Goddess had hid herself. There is a calendar of flowers, and one of holidays. In their celebrations the people show great taste in decoration and artistic amusement, for Japan is in itself a school of living art, and the Japanese are artistic to the finger-tips, being passionately fond of nature's beauties and of the national legends. Story-tellers are found in all the large cities and novels and cheap colored prints circulate everywhere.

SCHOOLS, LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

Schools are found everywhere, from sub-tropical to sub-arctic parts of the Empire, and nearly one-twelfth of the population is in school. Perhaps no

country in the world has a larger population of people who can read and write, and ninety-one per cent of the children of school age (that is, about six million) daily attend the public schools, which are graded, from the kindergarten to the Imperial University, and number about thirty thousand. In 1871 a national system of education was established, largely with the aid of American teachers. Instead of the old instruction, given in temples or private schools, where the young folks sat on their heels upon mat-covered floors and learned only the rudiments of arithmetic and literature, the schoolhouses are now built and equipped in modern style, with desks and seats, blackboards, maps, apparatus, etc., and the pupils are taught in classes, and learn the languages and sciences, though patriotism, morals, and manners are the first care.

One curious effect of sitting on chairs, thus allowing the blood to circulate, instead of on the feet doubled up under the body (a posture which would make our limbs "go to sleep"), is the increase of stature of the whole people, an average of half an inch in one generation.

The Japanese language belongs to the Turanian or High Asiatic family. It has no gender, person, number, or case, with word-roots that never change, as in the Aryan languages, but instead adds the different parts expressing doubt, fear, hope, or politeness, the various tenses and modes, which additions are glued on, so to speak. Japanese speech is entirely different from the Chinese, though the characters used in China are also employed for writing in Japan. Nevertheless, one can write English ideas with them just as well as write Japanese, because they stand for things, not sounds. There is also a syllabary of forty-seven letters, with which the Japanese write their own language in its simpler forms, the katakana being the square form, and the hirakana the round or running hand used in rapid writing. Beginning with 712 A.D., when

the Japanese first saw their native speech expressed in letters and the first important book was penned, giving the legends of creation, and the mythology and early history of the country, a constant stream of literature has been flowing down the ages. History, drama, philosophy, poetry, romance, and almost every form of literary composition, are known; and the fact is remarkable that while the men wrote works of learning in the early ages, the women created the literary language. They penned the first works of imagination, and the novel called *The Romance of Prince Genji* is still the classic standard of pure Japanese. At present hundreds of newspapers, a luxuriant annual crop of novels, and serious works of science, law, *belles-lettres,* and every department of thought show the great mental activity of the Japanese.

THE PRODUCTS OF JAPAN, AND ITS ANIMALS.

Japan raises rice, millet, barley, tea and silk, and produces a great deal of coal and metals and many manufactured articles and works of art; but there are so many persons living on so few acres, that the food raised is consumed at home, while tea, silk, manufactured articles, products of art, and a thousand things for amusement and decoration are exported. Hardly an American house but has something from Japan in it. It does not produce a great deal of tea, but its raw and manufactured silk form nearly half of the value of its exports. In Japan, as elsewhere, the production of silk depends chiefly upon cheap labor and not upon climate. It exports the larger part of the excellent rice it produces, importing for its own use a much cheaper grade.

In cotton manufacturing, Japan is developing rapidly. Indeed, with her immense coal-fields and her national habit of industry, she may well look forward, as she does, to being, in manufacturing, at least, the England of the East.

Less than 30 per cent of the land is productive, and only 16 per cent is devoted to agriculture. The dense population and small area of productive land limits the keeping of live stock.

Japan is the fourth in rank among the great fishing nations of the world; thousands of tons of fish are caught to be used as fertilizer around the roots of tea-plants.

Animals, birds, and fishes are very numerous. Bear, deer, and crimson-faced monkeys, badgers, foxes, weasels, otters and martens, wild boars, rats and rabbits are plentiful. Horses and cows are common, but sheep are scarcely known. They do not thrive, because the bamboo under-growth, containing much silicon (flint) injures their stomachs. The reptiles include tortoises, snakes, lizards, frogs, and a peculiar salamander. Nearly four hundred species of bird are known, but not many of them sing, though the storks, cranes, and pheasants make the fields look very beautiful. No country in the world, probably, is richer than Japan in fresh and salt-water fish, as well as in dragon flies and butterflies. Mosquitoes are plentiful, but the horsefly is hardly known. The house pets and domestic birds and beasts, favorites of the garden and fish-pond, deserve a chapter by themselves. There are pug-nosed dogs, bob-tailed cats, Tosa pheasants, with tails six or ten feet long, trick monkeys, guinea pigs, canary birds, ferrets, fireflies, crickets, and singing insects, goldfish, turtles and tame carp that come up at a hand-clap to be fed. The Japanese, as a rule, are very kind to all dumb brutes, and they believe that even trees, plants, and flowers have souls. Buddhism has taught the people to be gentle.

THE CITIES OF JAPAN.

Kyoto was long the imperial city, rich in temples, priests, scholars, and people of gentle life, being renowned also for its beauty of situation and natural

surroundings. Osaka, near the coast, was the business city, where most of the barons and feudal lords had their agents and storehouses. It was long famous for its mighty castles, its rich merchants, and its many canals and bridges. Yedo, made a city in 1604, was the largest in the Empire. Here lived the two hundred and eighty feudal lords, who, when they went to their distant dominions, were obliged to leave their wives and children behind them as hostages. Yedo, from 1604 to 1868, was an exceedingly gay place, with all kinds of amusements, splendid architecture, and evidences of wealth and refinement, while the continued coming and going of the landed nobles, with large bodies of the feudal retainers, with their arms, horses, baggage and processions of followers, made the roads between Yedo and Kyoto very lively. There were fifty-four stations, famous for their inns, where relays of horses and baggage-carriers could be hired. In each province, or daimio's domain, there was a capital city, and others were noted for their traffic, or temples, or as seats of learning.

In 1868, the Emperor removed his residence from Kyoto to Yedo, which was henceforth named Tokyo (which is described elsewhere in this volume), and the feudal system was abolished, and army, navy, postage, coinage, courts, education and communications were made uniform and national.

THE MONEY OF JAPAN.

In old feudal days, there were probably as many as seven hundred different sorts of money—gold, silver, copper, brass, and paper, but since 1870 only the great mint at Osaka has coined the national money, which is based in its divisions on the American decimal system, while several hundred banks issue notes, which circulate freely. The coins are stamped, not with the Emperor's portrait, but with the sentimental and ordinary names of the nation, the date, the Emperor's

crest, and the contending dragons and pearl, symbolical of wealth in the sea, on land, and in the earth. The paper money bears emblems of good luck, wealth, or prosperity, or recalls, in its pictures, the heroes and stirring scenes of the past.

THE NATIONAL FLAG.

On the national standard is seen the red disk of the sun on a white field, and the battle-flag has a red sun with streaming red rays. There are also many flags used as signals, and of various designs for the navy and different departments of public service. The Emperor's crest is a sixteen-petalled chrysanthemum, and, except upon government property, or by members of the Imperial family, it is not lawful to use it. Another crest, used by the Emperor, is made up of the triple leaves of blossoms of the kiri tree.

THE QUICK GROWTH OF JAPAN FROM SAVAGERY TO CIVILIZATION.

The loyalty of the people to the Mikado is intense and all the more so because the Imperial House is the core and center of Japan's long and wonderful history. Putting aside the fairy tales and mythology, with which the children are amused and delighted, and which they receive for fact and truth, we can see that in early ages there were many tribes, representing at least four of the great races of the world, Aryan, Malay, Semitic, and Turanian. In Japan, as elsewhere, there was always a struggle between the savage and the civilized. The hunters and fishermen, who hated labor with spade or hoe, and obtained their sustenance by the chase, or in the sea, and the farmers who tilled fields and got their food from the earth, were always at war, not liking each other's ways any more than the North American Indians liked the ways of the colonial fathers of America. As the redmen hated to see the settler cut down the forests, build

fences, dam the streams and use them to turn saw-mills, so the Ainu or white savages in Japan resisted and fought back the advancing forces of civilization. The first thing we see in Japanese history that looks like settled society is in Yamoto, in the central part of the main island, in the fifth century. Here a tribe with a leader called the Mikado planted rice fields and developed civilization along lines of beauty and promise. They built the dolmens, or great stone chambers covered with earth, of which there are over seven hundred in Japan. In the early centuries, they got writing and some knowledge of books from China, through Korea. They knew of China only very vaguely, for keeled boats, that could sail across a great wide sea and return, were not yet known. Between Korea and Japan, however, which are within a few hours' sail of each other, there was a good deal of trading and fighting.

The most notable event, in the early history of Japan, as it was with that of our fathers in northern Europe, was the coming of a new religion. Buddhism was brought from Korea 552 A.D., by missionaries, and later followed scholars, skilled mechanics, architects, and costumers, besides images, inventions, fine clothes, books, and many ideas which were new and wonderful to the islanders, and gradually this religion spread through the country. Before this time, ancestor-worship was unknown and there were nothing but rude shrines and sacred places among the trees. This was the unorganized system of ideas and traditions called Shinto, or "The Way of the Gods," but it had no great temples or writings, and it means patriotism rather than the culture of holiness. While Buddhism was being propagated throughout the Empire and priests were moving over the roads and opening the wild country in a peaceful way, converting the people, and teaching them how to build fine houses and have better food, the Mikado's soldiers gradually pene-

trated the unknown east and far north, through the swamps and forests. They surmounted the high hills and built camps and stockades, while fighting steadily with the straight-eyed, white-skinned Ainu savages. Thus, for hundreds of years, military activities were such that a class of men who became regular soldiers was formed, and armor and arms were developed to a high degree. These warriors were called samurai, that is, the servants and guards of the Emperor. They wore their hair and dressed in a peculiar way, developed heraldry, and had a code of manners and law peculiar to their own class, like the knights of Europe. This was Bushido, or the Military code, with the self-inflicted punishment of hari-kari. The conquerors intermarried with subject women, and thus by degrees the people we call the Japanese came to be a nation.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF FEUDALISM.

By the end of the twelfth century all the inhabitants of the three great islands, Hondo, Kiushiu, and Shikoku had very much the same religion, law, customs, manners, dress, and were all under the government of the Mikado. Up to this time, only the nobles in Kyoto and wealthy landowners were considered "society." Soldiers had no social standing. After the military campaigns were over, the soldier clans, the Reds and the Whites, or the Genji and the Heike, (or Minamoro and Taira) having done their work on the frontiers, came to Kyoto to live. In 1168 these two great military clans quarreled. After a long campaign and series of battles by land and sea, the Genji were victorious, and in 1184 the Heike were annihilated. Yoshitsune was their great field marshal, but the head of the clan was Yoritomo, who took charge of the army and of the collection of taxes, and fixed his capital at Kamakura in the east. From that time there was dualism in the government. The Mikado was kept in Kyoto, with very little real authority, while the ruler in the east, called

Shogun, or military commander, held the actual power. He governed the whole country by dividing it into fiefs and giving these to the soldiers who had helped to conquer the land, or to their descendants.

In time the military overcame the civil power, and thus grew up feudalism; that is, a state of society, organized by warriors, in which everyone's social position depends upon ownership of land. The merchant, trader, or money-maker belongs in the lower classes, for wealth is not a passport to favor, nor can the rich man spend his money as he wishes, on fine dress, adornments, or luxuries; he must live very plainly as to house, clothes, food and display, and can not ride on a horse. Under such a system, the common people remain ignorant of the law, except as they know it by custom. They are expected to pay their taxes, hold their tongues, and obey their superiors who wear swords. The armed classes hold the high ranks and offices and are masters of society. The monk and priest dictate to the people what they are to believe, and they also own much land. The castle and the monastery are the principal public buildings. In Kyoto, under Buddhism, the dominant religion, the mikados often shaved off their hair, became monks, and retired from office, while children and young persons were set up as emperors, but were directed by the court officers.

A PERIOD OF MISERY AND OF LUXURY.

Meanwhile in the east, the first line of Shoguns, the Genji, came to an end in 1219. They were succeeded by rulers from the Hojo family—named, as most families in Japan are, from a place—who held the real power until 1333, though they usually had brought from Kyoto babies or children, mere figureheads, to act as shoguns. Kamakura was stormed and burned by the great Captain, Nitta, who served the Emperor, but who was killed in battle with the partisans of the Ashikaga shoguns, who ruled the country until 1573.

Between the years 1336-92, there were two rival lines of mikados, and the general state of the country was that of civil war. The shogun could not control the warriors, who built castles, raised armies and fought against each other. Hence this period is considered one of the most miserable in the history of Japan. Nevertheless, art flourished, luxury was common in the castles and cities, and some of the finest edifices were built, and paintings, work in bronze, steel, armor, swords, and sword decoration were done during this period.

THE ARRIVAL OF EUROPEANS, AND JAPAN'S ACCEPTANCE OF WESTERN CIVILIZATION.

The first Europeans came to Japan in 1539, led by Mindez Pinto, who wrote a book on Japan, and was followed by the great missionary, St. Francis Xavier, and many Portuguese friars. These preached the gospel, built churches, and made tens of thousands of converts. An embassy of Japanese Christian noblemen was sent to Europe, and visited the Pope and the King of Spain, their gifts and writings being known to this day. This period (1540-1600) is also famous for the Three Great Men, Nobunaga, Hideyoshi, and Iyeyasu, who subdued the barons in the name of the Emperor, and gave unity to the Empire. In 1592, Hideyoshi, having thousands of warriors to provide for, planned the invasion of China, and landed a large army in Korea under the famous leaders Konishi, Kato, and Kuroda. The Japanese were defeated, however, by an allied army of Chinese and Koreans, and Hideyoshi, now called the Taiko, or Regent, with his dying breath, ordered the recall of his soldiers. Then Iyeyasu, after the great battle of Sekigahara and the siege of the castle of Osaka, having defeated all rivals, became master of the country. He built Yedo, making it a great city, and gave the land peace for two hundred and fifty years, during which art, literature, and

learning flourished. After our Mexican War, treaties were made by Commodore Matthew C. Perry and Mr. Townsend Harris, which opened Japan to the commerce of the world. By 1868 the excitement in the country produced not only by the presence of foreigners on the soil, but by long study of the national history and literature, aroused discontent with the Yedo Government. A revolution broke out, which resulted in the restoration of supreme power to the Emperor, and his removal from Kyoto to Yedo, which city, now called Tokyo, became the sole seat of government. Then followed the building of railways and telegraph, and the full entrance into the modern life of the world, by the Japanese, by which they came into collision, first with the Chinese doctrine of universal sovereignty, and then with Russia's ambitions in the Pacific, compelling them to fight two great wars, in both of which they were victorious, but which left them with an enormous national debt. As direct results of the wars with China and with Russia, Formosa and Korea were added to the Japanese Empire. This wonderful people have now taken their place among the great nations of the world, and seem destined to play a large part in human progress and civilization.

Korea.

THE ancient and modern native name of Korea, now a part of the Japanese Empire, is Chosen, or Morning Radiance. Shaped like Florida and lying between China and Japan on the west and east, and the 34th and 43d parallels of north latitude, it is about the size of Minnesota, covering more than eighty thousand square miles. Water surrounds Korea, for besides the Yellow Sea and the Sea of Japan, its boundaries are formed by the two rivers on the north, the Yalu and the Tumen. The peninsula fronts Man-

churia, a part of China, on the west and north, and for eleven miles on the northeast touches Russia. The country consists really of one long range of mountains. These toward Japan are high and steep, so that on its eastern side, Korea has few seaports or long rivers, but many waterfalls and lofty cliffs. On the western side the rivers flow into the Yellow Sea, over a long slope, which is rich in farms and rice-fields. There is little tide on the eastern coast, but on the western the tides rise thirty feet. Along the sea boundary, one reads on the map many foreign names, French, English, Russian, and American, but inside the country everything is Korean. Although the natives write with Chinese characters, which are the same as those in use all over eastern Asia, yet the language and pronunciation being different, a foreigner must get the meaning of Korean names by eye and not by ear alone.

In the north, which is thinly settled, and has plenty of tigers and other wild beasts, the snow lies over the landscape during winter and is very deep in the valleys. In the south, which is more thickly populated, are many warm rice-fields, bamboo groves, and canebrakes. In the north limestone, and in the south granite prevails, and the soil thus differs in quality and color.

THE PEOPLE OF KOREA.

The Koreans are taller and lighter in complexion than the Japanese, and perhaps better looking than the Chinese, but they are not such brave soldiers as the former, or as sharp traders as the latter. It has not been good for this small country to be placed between two nations, one of which is so old and settled in its ways and the other so young and proud, and Korea has often been invaded from either side; but the Koreans are very polite and set great value on dignity and fine manners. The boys wear their hair in a braid down their back, until they are married. No matter how old a man may be, he is not socially considered more

than a child, until, having a wife, he can cut off his queue and do his hair in a top-knot. This has been the rule for thousands of years, but now Japanese fashions are beginning to prevail. Barbers have plenty to do, and the hair market is glutted. The girls do not have personal names, but are known as So-and-So's daughter or sister, and when married as Somebody's wife. Yet for all that, the young folks seem to be happy, have many sports, and live a good deal out-of-doors. The people are governed by both Japanese and Korean magistrates, and gradually good systems of law, justice, taxation, money, public hygiene, postage, and education are being introduced, making it possible for the farmers, mechanics, and laborers to earn and save money, and thus make the country rich, though hitherto it has been one of the poorest, because one of the most misgoverned lands.

The Koreans are very fond of out door amusements, such as archery, kite-flying, boating, picnics, visiting beautiful scenery and seeing royal pageants, while at home they play "go," or checkers, card games, and Chinese chess. Some of the rougher sports, like stone fights, are dangerous, though nowadays the tug-of-war, field-day sports, and athletics have taken the place of stone fights.

THE WEALTH OF THE COUNTRY.

Korea is rich in natural resources and metallic wealth. A great deal of gold is mined by Americans, Germans, and Japanese, and much of it comes to America. Timber in the north, most of it hard wood, is unusually fine. The grain crops, wheat, corn, barley, millet, and buckwheat thrive, and tobacco, ginseng, cotton, hemp, beans, potatoes, and melons do well; but rice forms the staple food. Apples, peaches, pears, plums, grapes, cherries, and berries of all sorts are grown, but are not equal in flavor to those produced in America, though Korean persimmons are the best

in the world. The hills, except in the far north, are bare, the timber having long since been cut off. In springtime the mountainsides and valleys are glorious with flowers. The pear blossom may be called the national flower of Korea. The Japanese are now replanting trees on the hills and establishing schools of forestry.

THE WILD AND DOMESTIC ANIMALS OF KOREA.

Among the wild animals in the peninsula, the tiger is the chief, for he is often bold enough to besiege houses and claw his way through the roof, eating men and domestic animals. Many stories and proverbs tell of his prowess. Leopards, tiger-cats, foxes, deer, badgers, otters and martens are also numerous. Of domestic animals, cows are numerous, but are not raised for their milk, for this, strange to say, is not in common use among the people; but the bulls are very useful in carrying large burdens of timber, firewood, and farm produce. The horses are usually small, and in the extreme north the ponies seem almost like big dogs. These and the donkeys are fed on bean soup and are put to bed at night in the stable, with ropes under their bellies. Dogs are numerous, but they do not like foreigners and are brave chiefly as barkers.

THE HOMES OF THE PEOPLE.

In the houses of the poor people there is always a little square hole at the bottom of the door, to let the little dog pass in and out. Beside this household pet, the bull calf is generally taken into the home as soon as it is weaned, or before that time, and grows up with the children, so that the bulls in Korea, as a rule, are gentle creatures, despite their great strength. Most Korean cottagers plant gourd or melon vines around their homes, so that the houses in summer are covered with a mass of foliage, the melons or gourds ripening on the roof, where also the red peppers, so much used

in cooking, but not so hot to the taste as ours, are spread out to dry.

Along the eaves sparrows, of which there are millions in the country, make their nests, but these often have to defend themselves, aided by the chattering magpies, against the otherwise rather harmless snakes that live on the roof. Korean folk-lore about insects, birds, and domestic and wild animals is very rich.

HOW THE PEOPLE DRESS.

The dress of the people is more like that in vogue in the United States than is that of the Chinese or Japanese. White clothes are the rule, but red, pink, green, blue, yellow are often seen, and a holiday crowd is very gay. Girls and women dress their hair very plainly, except when, as brides or ladies of rank, they use a very high and gaudy head-dress. Rings, ornaments and hairpins are of silver, the latter often tipped with agate or jade. Their main garment is very high-waisted. Buttons and buttonholes are not in use, but strings hold their clothes together. When they go out in the street, they usually pull their green coats up over their heads, showing little of their faces except their eyes. Women of the humbler classes, however, appear with face and head uncovered, and their married women wear, over their shoulders, a little jacket that leaves a great space between the bosom and the waist. Dainty white shoes, leggings and dress give the effect of attractive neatness. The daily food is rice for those that can afford it, but millet and turnips form the Korean staff of life, with plenty of red peppers always.

RELIGION OF THE KOREANS.

The real religion of Korea, as in Japan and China, is the worship of spirits and beasts. More powerful over their actions in daily life than Buddhism or the teachings of Confucius is their fear of the millions of

spirits. Thousands of sorcerers, men and women, with their drums and incantations, terrify them and make them pay money. Farmers can plant no seed, nor a man build a house, nor a sick person get well, nor marriage or burial take place, until the sorcerer is invited and well paid. The country is full of wayside shrines to the spirits and mountain gods. Other very expensive kinds of persons that prey on the Koreans are the *gesang,* or dancing girls, rope dancers, begging priests, acrobats, jugglers, blind beggars that prophesy evil unless well paid, and the corrupt office-holders.

EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE.

The old civil-service examinations, and the writing-schools which prepared candidates for office, have given way to the new public school system in which both girls and boys are taught in classes, with the aid of the blackboard, sitting on chairs in front of desks. This is quite different from the old way of squatting on the floor before the private teacher in a horse-hair hat and long white coat, who gave instructions in the Chinese classics and in brush-writing with India ink. The Koreans have a beautiful alphabet of twenty-four letters, invented in the fourteenth century. It is one of the best in the world, and in this form of letters, now much more used than formerly, is printed the modern text books of science and those which tell about foreign countries. The Korean language is more like the Japanese than any other, especially in structure, but the vocabulary is quite different.

THE TOWNS AND CITIES.

In Korean towns and cities, the shops are not large and richly stocked as in China and Japan, partly because the country is poor and partly on account of the fairs. The most common are those for the sale of furniture, metal work, hats, clothes, drugs, medicines, and many kinds of straw-ware and things made of

cane and rushes. There are numerous restaurants and rather too many shops where rice-wine, whiskey, and tobacco are sold. In the villages, on every fifth day, a fair is held, at which the lumbermen and woodcutters, farmers and gardeners, peddlers, and mechanics come to sell their goods. On these market days, one can see the roads filled with women bearing burdens on their heads, and farmers with their produce on bulls, or on their own backs, usually putting their load on a "jiggy" or frame strapped to their shoulders, which looks like a chair turned upside down. A man will carry on his own loins a pig, which is not only tied as to its legs but has its mouth strapped shut, lest piggy might join in the conversation. Besides, it is easier to carry a Korean pig than to drive one.

At the entrance of each village, grotesquely carved images of wood, usually two, representing the male and female, having hideous eyes, sawed-out teeth, and big ears and high caps, with flaps nailed on, are often met with. These grinning idols look very terrifying on moonlight nights. Some say they represent the gods of the road, others a famous robber, who was caught and punished by being boiled in oil, and that the images today are meant to scare away or duly impress footpads and road-thieves.

HISTORY OF THE COUNTRY.

Korea is one of the most Confucian of nations. It has, in some respects, a wonderful history. The people like to believe that in the year 1122 B.C., Kija, who was an ancestor of Confucius, journeyed eastward from central China and came into the wild regions of the river valleys of the Yalu and Ta Tong rivers and began Korean civilization, by building roads, enforcing good government, and teaching the savage people manners and morals. This is hardly better than a fairy tale, however; but we know that during the first

few centuries of the Christian era the country was occupied by the various people who came in from the north, the west, the southern islands, and those now called Japan. These drove the aborigines into the mountains, settled in the rich, warm valleys and gradually intermingled. In the fourth century the refining religion of the gentle Buddha was brought into the land. Along with it came writing, schools, costumes, and medicines from China and nearly everything that we mean by civilization. Many Chinese customs, as well as books, ethics, and philosophy, were introduced at the same time. The Buddhist missionaries went all over the country preaching the holy law of Buddha, building monasteries, temples, pagodas, and those great, colossal images of stone, called Miryek (Stone Men) which were cut out of the solid rock, or chiseled from boulders. Cotton was introduced in the twelfth century and the national costume was fixed. For a thousand years the country was under the sway of Buddhism, which has done so much for the Korean people. During this time, just as on the continent of America, there are British, American, and Mexican, so in Korea, three states arose, of which Silla or Shinra in the southwest became chief. To its ports the Arabs came to trade, and the Chinese ships from Ningpo sailed hither by the mariner's compass. From the ninth to the fourteenth century there was a united Korai, or Korea, with its capital at Song-do. In 1392 a new dynasty of kings was founded and the state religion was changed to Confucianism and the style of hair-dressing, costume and etiquette made to conform to that of Ming dynasty in China. All this time from early ages until the nineteenth century, Korea was a vassal to China and paid tribute, but in 1876 the Japanese, and in 1882 the Americans made treaties that recognized Korea as an independent nation. The Government and people, however, showed great weakness, even after Japan had gone to

war with both China and Russia, with the idea of preserving Korea's integrity. Hence in August, 1910, the country became a part of the Japanese Empire, the king, princes, and nobles receiving titles and pensions. Japan has begun the task of giving to the Koreans the same blessings of modern civilization which the islanders themselves have won and enjoyed. About fifty thousand Koreans have gone abroad as students, or as laborers, to Hawaii, the United States, Japan, and South America.

Mexico.

A LAND OF SUNSHINE AND FLOWERS.

DESPITE the fact that for a distance of a thousand miles the countries of Mexico and of the United States are joined, most Americans know less about the Republic of Mexico than they know of Europe. But no European country presents an aspect stranger to American eyes nor exceeds Mexico in historic interest. It has all climates, from that of the torrid zone to that of regions of perpetual snow, and its fertile soil produces every variety of fruit that grows between the equator and the arctic circle. This country measures 1,900 miles in length, 750 in breadth, and covers an area of almost 800,000 square miles. At its narrowest part it is only 125 miles wide, a broad isthmus between the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans. It has a double range of mountains, one near the Pacific coast, the other near the Gulf of Mexico, between which ranges lie great table-lands, which form a large part of the surface of the country. At the summit of the higher mountains, 6,000 feet or more above sea level, the temperature is cold, though it is by no means like the cold of the northern American States. The lands at an altitude from 3,000 to 6,000 feet are known as the temperate region, where perpet-

ual heat and humidity prevail; while along the coast line of both the Atlantic and the Pacific are broad tracts lying in a truly tropical climate. Here fierce heat reigns, and the soil is covered with dense forests of gigantic trees, in which are found monkeys, jaguars, armadilloes, and parrots, besides venomous serpents and insects; in the rivers the same kinds of alligators and fishes abound that are common in Brazil. In the course of a few hours a traveler may pass through different zones of vegetation, including wheat and sugar-cane, the ash-tree and the palm, apples, olives, and guavas.

We have all read of the wonderful lakes of Italy and of Great Britain, but how many have learned that Lake Chapala, in the southwestern part of Mexico, near the Sierra Madre range, is ten times larger than all the northern Italian lakes put together, and has islands larger than the whole surface of Lake Lomond in Scotland? It has an area of 1,400 square miles and is of unsounded depth.

The dwellings of the native Mexicans show as much variety as the climate. In the hot regions they are constructed simply of bamboo and light poles, open to sun and wind; in the temperate lands they are built more substantially; and in the highlands they are composed of stone or adobe.

The greater number of the inhabitants of Mexico are descendants of the Indian races, among them the Aztecs, who were found there by the Spanish conquerors in 1519, and a mingling of these natives with European peoples. Of the 13,000,000 inhabitants only about thirteen per cent are pure whites.

THE AZTECS.

No one knows the origin of the Aztecs, the most interesting of all Indian peoples. They are supposed to have wandered from the southwestern part of the territory of North America into the Valley of Mexico,

THE CATHEDRAL, CITY OF MEXICO.—The most imposing structure in the city. Begun in 1573, it covers the site of an Aztec temple destroyed by the Spaniards. Cost about $2,000,000.

long before historic times. On the shores of a great lake (Texcoco), they settled and built their first city, which in time contained great palaces and temples in place of the first houses of rushes and reeds.

Of the Aztecs' history before the Spanish invasion very little is known, but it is certain, from the ruins and relics left by these remarkable people, that their civilization was far ahead of that of any other race on the western hemisphere. There was another race called the Toltecs who preceded the Aztecs. They, too, were far advanced in civilization; and both peoples—as shown by the various structures found in different parts of Mexico—were great builders and sculptors, and, like the ancient Egyptians, had cultivated the art of picture-writing on stone. They had good houses, wore clothing, made cloth, had schools, and a great many household gods. They worked the rich gold and silver mines for which Mexico is so famous, and it was the lure of these metals that brought upon them the cruel, ruthless Spaniards, under the leadership of Cortez, who enslaved, tortured and imprisoned this once happy people to force them to reveal the source of the lavish display of gold and silver ornaments seen in every dwelling.

At last the Indians were conquered and Spain set up an iron rule over the whole of Mexico and the territory now forming the States of Texas, California, and New Mexico. This rule lasted three hundred years, when the people revolted against Spain and declared their independence. Peace did not follow at once, however, for in the fifty years that came after this declaration there were ten changes in the form of government and fifty-four different rulers, including two emperors. In 1824 a republic was proclaimed, but it had a stormy time for several years under the military dictatorship of General Santa Anna, in whose time occurred the conflict with the United States over Texas, known as the Mexican War

(1846-47), with the result that Texas became a State of the Union, and all of California (except the strip known as Lower California) and the territory north of the Rio Grande was ceded by Mexico to the United States.

THE FEDERATION OF TODAY.

The United States of Mexico is today a federation of twenty-seven States, two territories, and a federal district in which the capital is located. They have a constitution modeled after our own, adopted in 1857, and a congress composed of two bodies. Since the year 1877 they have had but one President—Porfirio Diaz—though several uprisings against the government have occurred and have been put down. In 1910, however, a revolution broke out, incited by the discontent of the younger element in the nation, who desired a change of government. This was finally settled in May, 1911, after much fighting and disorder between the revolutionists and the federal party, by the resignation of the aged President and the installing of his chief minister, Señor de la Barras, as temporary President for six months, until a new general election could be held.

Under the rule of President Diaz the country improved greatly. Freedom of the press, of speech, and of religious thought came into full play, after centuries of Spanish suppression of all independence. Crime decreased rapidly, and brigandage was almost wiped out by the simple method of executing every brigand that was caught. Although the Roman Catholic form of religion prevails, Church and State are separated, and public schools are non-sectarian. Education is supposed to be compulsory, but among the Indians the law is not rigidly enforced, and much ignorance still exists. The Indians of the northern regions, however, show a desire to improve their condition, and sometimes they reach high stations—for instance, President Juarez was a full-blooded Indian, and he ruled wisely and well.

One of the Huge Crowds that Gather about the stately Plaza Mayo Cathedral on Festival-days.

MEXICO'S WEALTH; SOME OF HER CUSTOMS.

The first railway, running from Mexico City to Vera Cruz, the chief port on the Gulf, was laid in 1872; since then more than 7,000 miles of railways have been put in operation, and the modern electric conveniences have been adopted in the larger towns.

Mexico produces some kinds of cloth, carpets and wearing apparel, and Vera Cruz is the great center for the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes, although they are made all over the country. The striking broad-brimmed Mexican hats called sombreros are manufactured largely and are of very fine quality.

As in the time of the Spanish conquests, Mexico is famous today for her mineral wealth, which ranks her very high among the nations. Almost all metals are found, but silver so predominates that it takes first place in all mining. One mine in the State of San Luis Potosi yielded in seventy years the amazing sum of $150,000,000. Another, in 1800, yielded one-fifth of all the silver then in use in the world. The value of the annual product of gold and silver is estimated to be about $40,000,000.

Among the well-to-do Spanish Mexicans many of the Old-World customs prevail. The ladies drive in closed carriages, which they do not leave when shopping, the goods being brought out from the shops for their inspection. Young girls do not appear in public without an older companion, and never receive calls from young men alone. At a dance the youths remain on one side of the room and the girls on the other except when actually on the floor. When a young man becomes betrothed to a girl he never sees her except in the presence of her relatives, and if he wishes to take her to some entertainment the whole family must accompany them. The lot of the Indian girls is very different. There is no seclusion in their lives, and hard work begins for them at a very early age. They frequently sleep on the bare ground with no more covering than the clothing on their bodies.

Holidays and holy-days play a great part in the lives of the people. In many cities the revolting bull-fight is the grand Sunday entertainment. It is an encouraging sign of progress, however, that this cruel practise is no longer approved by the better class, and its abolishment is regarded as only a question of time.

The Republic of Mexico has passed through dark days and still has troublous times, but it is inevitable that the country will progress in education and achievement, and in time will develop to the full its marvelous resources.

Netherlands.

A COUNTRY SNATCHED FROM THE SEA.

WHEN we get our first glimpse of Holland we can think of nothing but water and windmills, for these are everywhere present. At the western end of the great plain that extends across Europe, from the Ural Mountains to the North Sea, a wild and desolate land was formed long ago by the earth that was washed down by rivers from the Alps and the high places of France and Germany. Here came adventurous German tribes who reared mud huts on these Netherlands (or lowlands) and entrenched themselves as well as they could against the ever encroaching sea and rivers. These brave people began to build dikes, or embankments, around their tiny settlements, to keep the water back. Then they cut channels for the rivers, until finally they were able to protect the whole land. They drained the lakes and swamps, and built towns on their sites, making the rivers and canals serve as means of passing from one place to another. Thus Holland may in this respect be regarded as the most wonderful country in the world; the soil had to be created, literally snatched, acre by acre, from the sea; her towns and

cities are built upon piles driven into the sand; the land in many places is lower than the sea; and the whole country depends upon the ceaseless watchfulness of its people to prevent its being carried away. With all this to contend against, Holland is one of the busiest, richest, cleanest, and happiest countries in the world, with a population of 5,800,000.

The Waterstaat is an official organization for watching and controlling the water; no one is exempt from service in it, and should an alarm be given of a threatened break in a dike, bells are rung, cannon fired, and old and young, rich and poor, rush to fight the foe. The dikes are built of Norwegian granite, or of clay, peat, and timber; they are thirty feet high and seventy feet broad at the base. The canals cover a length of 1,900 miles, the most important being the North Holland Canal, the North Sea Canal, and a great Waterway which connects Rotterdam with the North Sea.

Holland's political history has not been less wonderful than her physical history. This little territory, covering 12,600 square miles, settled by Germanic tribes, was conquered first by Romans, then by Franks, was laid waste by Normans and Danes, was desolated by civil war with all its horrors; and yet its indomitable people, to save their civil liberty and their freedom of religious thought, opposed the Spanish monarchy for eighty years and founded a government which became a refuge for those seeking liberty of conscience, such as the Puritans. It became the adopted country of science, a station for the commerce of the world, and at last extended its domination to include the colonial possessions of the Dutch East Indies and the Dutch West Indies (Dutch Guiana and Curacao). The government is a monarchy, with a congress called the States-General, the members of which are elected by the people.

The windmills we have mentioned stand in rows along the endless canals, and we can often count as

many as a hundred in sight. Almost every farmer owns one. Each mill is built like a tower, with four great arms or sails. Sometimes the towers are so large around that they serve as dwellings. The windmills pump water from one level to another in draining fields; others grind corn, or furnish power for mills and factories. The country is so level that the winds from the ocean blow as regularly as out at sea, so that the mills perform their work with equal regularity.

In many towns the canals form important waterways or streets, as in Venice, and in the country they serve as roads. It is a curious sight to observe great ships, at a distance across the flat landscape, apparently sailing through green fields. Every field has its well-kept cattle of high breed, for the Dutch people are famous for their fine butter and cheese, which are among the chief exports of the country. The proverbial cleanliness of Dutch houses and streets, which are scrubbed every day to an almost painful degree of spotlessness, is maintained in the barns and stables where the stock is kept. The walls are whitewashed often, the floors swept clean, the cows have a daily bath, and their tails are tied up when milking-time comes.

The Dutch are famous farmers as well as dairymen, though their implements are old-fashioned and clumsy. All over Holland are great fields of barley, wheat, oats, and potatoes, and the cultivation of flowers is a passion there. From 1634 to 1636 the Hollanders went wild over the cultivation of tulips; bulbs were dealt in at "tulip exchanges," bringing fabulous prices, and thousands of persons were ruined in trying to raise rare specimens.

DUTCH BOYS AND GIRLS AND THEIR HOMES.

Dutch boys and girls must attend the fine schools of their country, and few Europeans are better educated than the Dutch. There are ancient uni-

versities at Leyden, Utrecht, and Groningen, and since 1877 there has been a new university at Amsterdam. The children of the working class wear wooden shoes, like their elders, but run about as briskly as anyone, in spite of these clumsy-looking objects. They have rosy, healthy, honest faces, and have a merry time in winter skating on their long canals, which make good playfellows in summer also.

Almost every Dutch house has its garden, with weedless walks, bright flower-beds, and neat borders. In the evenings all the household sits out-of-doors, smoking, chatting, knitting, drinking beer or coffee. At nearly every house we see little mirrors, consisting of two pieces of glass set at right angles, projecting from the sides of the window, so that the dwellers can see all that happens in the street, without gazing out of the window. When anyone is ill a daily bulletin of his condition is posted on the door of his house. When death occurs, a man dressed in black robes, wig and cocked hat stands before the house and announces the fact. A birth is announced by a small placard of red silk and lace affixed to the door; and a girl's betrothal is always celebrated by a gathering of friends and unlimited drinking of spiced wine.

The capital of the province of South Holland is called The Hague (meadow, or hedge), and it is the seat of royalty and of the States-General. It is a handsome city, with broad streets and beautiful parks, and within its confines have been arranged some of the most famous international treaties and alliances of history. Here was assembled, in 1899, the Peace Conference proposed by the Russian Emperor, and The Hague was then chosen as the permanent place for international conferences. Its population numbers more than 200,000. Its more notable buildings are the royal palace, the Houses of Parliament, the Church of St. James, built in 1308, with a chime of thirty-eight bells, and a fine picture-gallery containing many masterpieces of the Dutch school of painting.

Another interesting Dutch town, which might well be called "Spotless," is Broek, the cleanest little city in the world. All the houses are of wood, brightly painted, and not a speck of dirt is allowed to rest upon them; the roofs are of tile, regularly wiped off; the streets are paved with small stones, arranged in mosaic patterns and scrubbed every day. Almost the whole population is engaged in making the small, clean, round Edam cheeses.

Haarlem is a delightful old city, celebrated for its nursery-gardens, from which choice flower-seeds, bulbs and trees are exported to all countries. It was the seat of the "tulipomania" of the seventeenth century. In its principal church stands one of the finest organs in the world, which has been played upon by both Handel and Mozart.

The most important city of Holland is Amsterdam, the capital, the story of which you may read in another place in this volume.

New Zealand.

A THRIVING BRITISH COLONY.

THERE is a doubt as to what white man first saw the shores of New Zealand, but to the Dutch discoverer, Tasman, is generally conceded the honor. After discovering Tasmania in 1642, he came upon South Island. Here he anchored, hoping to get fresh water for his two ships. Tasman tried to barter with the natives who surrounded him in their canoes, but met with so unfriendly a reception that he sailed away. He named the island after a part of Holland called Zeeland. For over a hundred years more the wild natives, called Maoris, had the island to themselves, as the Dutch made no use of it. Then, in 1769, the famous English navigator, Capt. James Cook, touched its shores, this time at Poverty Bay on

the east coast. He landed here and without doubt was the first white man to set foot upon the islands.

CAPTAIN COOK MAKES FRIENDS WITH THE NATIVES.

The natives watched his ship, the *Endeavor,* with fear and amazement. They thought it a great white bird, and when he and his men landed they ran away. He succeeded in making friends with them, however, and learned many interesting things about the island. He found, for instance, that no four-footed animals lived upon it, except a few dogs and rats. Among other things, too, he discovered that though the land was most fertile, no grain of any kind grew upon it; instead, every valley and hillside was covered with ferns, for New Zealand is a land of ferns. The Maoris made fern-roots into a meal from which they made a kind of grayish bread.

Captain Cook paid five visits to New Zealand and learned much about the land and the people. And he brought to the savages useful animals and plants, such as pigs and fowls, potatoes and corn.

THE FIRST SETTLERS.

After a while tales were told of gold and precious stones to be found on the islands; these stories brought many adventurers. Then New Zealand was found to be splendid whaling and sealing ground and this invited many reckless and daring old whalers and sealers, who treated the Maoris with great cruelty. New Zealand's flax was so soft and silky, and its timber so valuable, that many Englishmen settled on the coasts, engaging in trade, intermarried with the natives, and acquired land. In 1814 came the missionaries who brought to the savages the beginnings of their civilization. Of these missionaries the best-known is Samuel Marsden, who is called the "Apostle of New Zealand." He brought about peace between warring tribes, he introduced wheat and flour-mills

and horses and cows. The size of these animals amazed the natives, who had never seen any animal larger than the pigs which had been introduced by Captain Cook.

THE MAORIS.

The Maoris of New Zealand are a most interesting race. They are a branch of the Polynesians, similar to the Hawaiians, the Samoans, and some other peoples of the Pacific islands. According to their own legends they came from Hawaii about five centuries ago, in double canoes. They are brown-skinned and well-built and are extremely gentle and kindly. When the Europeans visited the islands, they found the Maoris divided into small tribes who were pretty constantly at war. Their weapons and tools were made of a polished green stone, a variety of jade, which they called "punamu." They knew nothing of metals. This stone is very hard and valuable, and the quarries, over which there was much warfare, are in the South Island. Each chief had a fine, large war-club made of punamu, which he greatly prized and which was buried with him at his death. They had no knowledge of even bows and arrows, but fought hand to hand with spears and clubs. They tattooed their faces in grotesque designs, but their wood-carvings, their weaving and their dyeing showed great beauty.

In 1840 the sovereignty of the islands was ceded to Great Britain, the Maori chiefs being guaranteed full possession of their lands, forests, etc. The seat of government was fixed at what is now called Auckland. During the following years the many colonization companies who were exploiting in New Zealand, took possession of lands without any thought of the rights of the natives and of the promises to the Maoris by the Home Government. This brought about a good deal of bloodshed between the natives and the settlers. In 1850 the British Government obtained complete control of the colony and in 1855 the first representative assembly was opened.

DUK DUK DANCERS OF THE SOUTH SEA ISLANDS.—A queer religious rite in which the men performers are unknown to the inhabitants. After weeks of solitude, they appear in the village and if any dancer loses his mask and is recognized he is killed, as is also any woman witnessing the dance.

For some time the natives resisted the new authority which had come upon them, but they have slipped easily into the ways of civilization and now take an intelligent and active part in the government they once despised and resisted.

NEW ZEALAND'S SOCIALISTIC GOVERNMENT.

The labor element in New Zealand exercises a strong influence in its affairs, and the tendency toward State Socialism has been rapid. Railroads have been constructed and are managed under government supervision, as well as telegraphs, telephone systems, etc.; the State is authorized to lend to farmers upon mortgage; a "Family Home Protection Act" forbids the selling of a homestead for debt, and land laws are so constituted as to protect small owners and prevent large parcels of land from being held by the few. There are old-age pensions and accident insurance for workingmen and all sorts of legislation in their favor. This Socialistic experiment has brought world-wide publicity to New Zealand. There is by no means unanimity of opinion, however, regarding the value and expediency of these laws.

Two bodies, the Legislative Council and the House of Representatives compose the Parliament. All properly registered adults, both men and women, who have lived in the colony a year and in the electoral district three months, can vote. The Maoris send four representatives to administrate the colony; a governor is appointed by the sovereign.

Education is compulsory and there are about 200,000 pupils enrolled in the State schools. The colony has a University, several Art Schools, and schools of Mines and Engineering and an Agricultural college.

THE ISLANDS WHICH FORM THE COLONY OF NEW ZEALAND.

Two large islands, North Island and South or Middle Island comprise New Zealand, together with a

smaller one, Stewart Island, about twenty-five miles south of South Island; several outlying groups of islands also belong to the colony. Cook Strait, about twenty miles wide, separates North and South Islands. In shape New Zealand is strikingly like Italy, which in area it nearly equals, being estimated at 104,471 square miles. North Island, in appearance, differs greatly from South Island. It has dense forests and several active volcanoes, and many extinct volcanic peaks. South Island has no volcanoes, but a great, snow-capped range of mountains known as the Southern Alps runs along its western coast. These reach a height of eight thousand to over twelve thousand feet and are wonderfully beautiful, with great ravines and precipices and glaciers, and forests which touch the snow line. On both islands are many lovely lakes and wonderful waterfalls. Those on North Island are of volcanic origin and the surrounding region has numberless hot springs and geysers. Much of the scenery in New Zealand suggests the Yellowstone Park of the United States. The magnificent lakes of South Island are of glacial origin. The largest of these, Wakatipu, is more than one thousand feet above sea level and it is about five hundred feet deep.

ITS CAPITAL AND ITS PRINCIPAL CITIES.

Wellington, on North Island, is the capital of New Zealand and its most central seaport. It is an exceedingly progressive town, with a population of over fifty thousand. It contains many fine buildings, an excellent library, street railways and electric lights, and the best art school in the colony.

The most important and most beautiful town in New Zealand is Auckland, situated on North Island. In its museum is the best collection of Maori art in existence. It has a splendid harbor and many thriving industries, such as sugar-refining and shipbuilding.

The colony's third most important city is Dunedin,

on South Island, with a population of about fifty-five thousand. As one may guess, from its name, it was settled by Scotch people. "Dunedin" is the old Saxon form of the name of Edinburgh. Dunedin's fine university has a large and well-equipped library, and its schools are excellent.

Christchurch is another thriving and populous town on South Island, with important manufactures. Including its suburbs, its population is sixty thousand. It contains a beautiful Cathedral church, a library, public gardens, a museum and a college with an attendance of several hundreds.

New Zealand has a remarkably fine climate and its death rate is the lightest in the world. Sheep-farming is the chief industry, wool and frozen meat heading the list of its exports. The sons and daughters of this thriving and progressive colony are very loyal children of the Mother Country, England, which they always tenderly speak of as "home." The Boer war, begun in 1899, gave the colony her chance to prove this loyalty. She sent to her aid six thousand men and horses—splendid men, who fought bravely and won high praise for their courage and discipline.

Norway.

THE "LAND OF THE MIDNIGHT SUN."

NORWAY (north way), a part of the Scandinavian Peninsula, is so far north that in summer the daylight lasts for months, when the sun shines "all around the clock;" whereas in winter the darkness of night is prolonged in the same way. This means only in the northern part of the Peninsula, though the whole country is so far north that the days in summer are much longer, and in winter much shorter, than ours.

Norway is part of a vast body of land which is

larger by four times than the whole of the New England States, rising out of the Atlantic Ocean and sloping toward the east and south to the Gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic Sea. The country is rugged and mountainous, with snow-crowned peaks and immense glaciers in the north. It has three thousand lakes, many of them joined by canals. Along the Atlantic Ocean is a wall of mountains, with many great cliffs or chasms in it. Some of these clefts extend many miles into the land, admitting the ocean, which forms great streams, by which ships can pass far into the interior. These ocean avenues are called fjords, and are the communicating means for commerce and trade. The walls of these canyons rise so high that the sky seems to rest on them like a roof. Towns and villages are scattered along the banks, with now and then a small city. The houses are not very attractive; they look like huge wooden boxes on foundations of stone, the wood being painted in bright colors. The fjords give the whole peninsula a coast line of 10,500 miles. The area of Norway is 124,445 square miles, but three-fourths of this land is unhabitable. Its whole population is only 2,240,000.

TRONDHJEM.

Trondhjem is an important seaport and a fine city, with broad streets, modern pavements and handsome buildings. It has great ship-yards, lumber-mills, and fish-packing houses, for the Norwegians are expert seamen and fishermen; they sail to all parts of the world, and their fish is eaten in many lands. Trondhjem is also an important railway city, being connected with Christiania, the capital. Though it is so far north, it does not freeze up during the winter because the westerly wind, which drifts the warm water from the Gulf Stream up into the north Atlantic Ocean, is kept warm by the gulf current, and thus renders Norway habitable for man. Without these warm winds and waters the fjords would be frozen solid, and the

coast would be as cold and desolate as the polar regions. In Trondhjem is the very ancient cathedral in which the Norwegian kings have been crowned, its name signifying "throne's home."

Norway was once ruled by the same king that reigned over Sweden, the union beginning in 1814; but early in the twentieth century the Norwegians became dissatisfied, desiring an independent government, and in 1905 separated from Sweden and set up a new constitutional monarchy, with a Parliament known as the Storthing.

The traveler to the North Cape sails from Trondhjem between the long chain of islands and the mainland, and usually stops at Tromso to observe the curious Mongolians, or people of the Yellow race, who live there. Their part of the north country is called Lapland and the people are Lapps. They look like first cousins to the Eskimos and are only half-civilized, living in rude huts of stones and earth. They dress in reindeer skins, with the fur inside, for reindeer abound in the northern region and the people could not get on without them. They take the place of horses and cows, for the Lapps drive them everywhere, use their milk, and eat their flesh.

THE NORTHERNMOST TOWN IN THE WORLD.

Farther on is Hammerfest, the most northerly town in the world. It is a busy place, with three thousand inhabitants, who have built good houses and who enjoy telegraphic communication with the rest of the world. Vegetation here, as elsewhere in Norway, thrives rapidly in the short, hot summers, when the sun shines all day and almost all night, and crops are ready to be gathered in a few weeks.

A seven-hours' journey from Hammerfest takes one to the North Cape, at the extremity of Magero Island, the northernmost point of Europe. Although on the Arctic Ocean, it is not very cold, for the warm drift of the Gulf Stream still prevails, though

now and then a glittering iceberg is seen, and the great glaciers on the mountains are always visible. Whales and seals are found in these waters, and on some of the islands on the way to this point great flocks of eider-ducks congregate, and are carefully protected by law, as the gathering of their fine feathers and down is the means of livelihood of many people.

When the traveler enters the harbor of the North Cape, he is taken in a small boat to the shore and climbs the bluff that overlooks the harbor, to obtain the best view of the "jumping-off place" of the world. Suppose it is 11 p. m.—the sun is still a long distance above the horizon and shining brightly. The tourist makes his way to the farthest point possible on the rocky bluff and gazes out upon the polar world. To the north are icebergs, fields of snow and ice, polar bears, and the wonderful Eskimos that can live in such a region. To right and left are seas visited only by whalers and sealers. He looks at his watch. It is midnight, and the sun, though low in the heavens, is still shining!

CHRISTIANIA, THE PLEASANT CAPITAL CITY.

Christiania, the capital of Norway, is approached from the sea by a broad fjord, studded with islands. In a fertile valley, eighty-four miles from the sea, stands the capital, with the river Agerselv intersecting it and supplying motive power to its mills and factories. The town was founded in 1624, and was long closely connected with England through commerce. It grew slowly, but is now a fine and flourishing city, with a population of 227,000. The Karl Johans-gade is the finest street, with attractive gardens, good shops and some of the best buildings. The shops are more noticeable for practical use than for showy display. When a man enters one he removes his hat and remains uncovered while he stays. Many of the dwelling-houses are arranged in flats or apartments of

several rooms; a gateway leads into an airy paved court, into which the windows look. No one is allowed to erect any sort of wooden building in the city, on account of the terrible fires that have occurred when the town contained many houses made of wood.

At the end of the Johans-gade stands the royal palace. The view of the city from the hill on which the palace stands is said to be one of the finest in Europe. The edifice itself is a simple building of classical outlines, surrounded by beautiful gardens. The House of Parliament is an imposing structure of Byzantine and Romanesque architecture.

Of establishments for science, art, industry, and education there are many, all doing good work. Hospitals and charitable institutions are numerous. The Norwegians are a highly educated people, and have schools in every town and village. Their literature abounds in some of the most interesting mythology of the world, and is closely related to the wonderful literature of Iceland. Two names in modern literature of which Norwegians are very proud are Henrik Ibsen, the great dramatic writer, and Björnstjerne Björnson, the novelist. Both of these great and original authors have reproduced Norwegian city and home life with exact realism, and have made their country better understood the world over than ever it was before they took up the pen.

Persia, "The Land of the Lion and the Sun."

AN ANCIENT COUNTRY, WITH A NEW CONSTITUTION AND A VERY YOUNG RULER.

PERSIA is one of the most ancient counties of which we have historical records; the earliest of these is found in the Bible, which tells us that in the days of Abraham, two thousand years before Christ, the section of Persia now called Elam,

in the southern part of the country, was an important kingdom. The Persians as a united people first became powerful after several great empires in the neighboring country of Turkey had been destroyed by fierce wars. The famous city of Babylon was taken, five hundred years before Christ, by Cyrus, the great king and general, founder of the Persian monarchy. But about three hundred and fifty years before Christ, the mighty monarch Alexander the Great acquired possession of all Persia. Thereafter its history is one of changing rulers—Greeks, Parthians, Mohammedans—until in 1501 A.D. the Persian dynasty was restored, and this has continued to the present day. On January 1, 1909, the Persian people revolted against the government of their Shah (king); desultory fighting broke out, and at last the Shah, Mohammed Ali, was brought to terms. He had sworn to uphold a constitution (in itself an absolute novelty in Persian government) which was drawn up in 1907; but he broke his faith and attacked the Parliament. He lost power steadily, and the Nationalists, largely composed of the younger and more progressive Persians, became strong enough to march on the capital. They demanded reforms, and organized a National Assembly, which removed the Shah from the throne and chose as his successor Ahmed Mirza, a boy eleven years old. Ayad-ul-mulk, a popular statesman of liberal mind, was appointed regent during the boyhood of the youthful Shah. A pension was granted to the deposed Shah on condition of his leaving the country.

The area of Persia is about 628,000 square miles; it is more than three times the size of France, and more than twice as large as Texas, the largest State of the American Union. It lies mainly between the Caspian Sea on the north and the Persian Gulf on the south. It has about 8,000,000 inhabitants, nearly the same number as Canada, and fewer than the State of New York.

WHAT WE FIND IN PERSIA.

There are no navigable rivers in Persia, and but few railways, although the telegraph was introduced about thirty years ago. The railways cover only short distances and are badly managed. Neither are there many roads fit for wheeled vehicles, nearly all traveling and transportation of goods being done on the backs of camels, mules, or horses. This highly inconvenient system makes anything imported from other countries very expensive. Let us follow one of these camel caravans on the road to Teheran, and see what sort of country these people have. Striking a trail looking southeast from Resht, our landing-place, we pass through a rolling and mountainous country and come into the provinces lying north of the great Elburz range, near the Caspian Sea. On the northern side of these mountains it often rains, and many streams cross the plains that border the Caspian. This moisture brings wonderful vegetation all the year round, almost tropical in brilliance and variety. But after we climb a mountain and reach the top we see a change so great that it seems as if we were looking down upon another hemisphere. No forests can be seen below us, and parched plains stretch away southward for six hundred miles. Then we learn that only about one-third of Persian soil is fit for cultivation (that on the southern and western sides of the Caspian), but in that portion is raised a great variety of vegetables and cereals, including wheat, barley, and rice. Cotton and tobacco also are raised, and an abundance of fine fruits. One of the most wonderful sights in this region is the rose-gardens—miles and miles of them—from which the famous perfume called attar of roses is made. In the southwestern part of Persia lie vast coal-fields, undeveloped for a long time, but now being worked to some extent. Central Persia is a great table-land, or plateau, 6,000 feet about sea level, where the climate

is hot, but dry, and terrific wind-storms occur frequently. Persia possesses great variety of climate, for in the mountain regions it is almost arctic in coldness, while on the plains it is intensely hot.

A PERSIAN VILLAGE.

As we wind our way down toward the plains, curiosity and surprise are awakened by coming upon something that looks like a fortress, with square, high, battlemented stone walls, having towers at each corner. But this encloses only a village; and throughout the country near the coast one finds nearly all villages enclosed in this war-like manner, which in former days protected the people against Turkish brigands, who used to steal upon them with the stillness and speed of North American Indians, and carry them away into slavery, which no longer exists in Persia itself.

A UNIQUE WATER-SUPPLY.

What are these curious piles of earth, which we see by hundreds as we draw near the capital? They are part of the system of water-supply, which is unique in this country. No civilized land has so poor a water-supply, yet apparently it has all that it needs. The snow and rain on the many high mountains feed the streams dashing down the precipices or the springs near their base. These are tapped, and the water is conveyed to the towns by subterranean aqueducts. In order to guide the aqueducts straight, shafts are dug about eighty yards apart. The earth thrown up forms a hillock, which is allowed to remain. Do not go too close to one of these deep shafts, for whoever falls in stays in!

THE CAPITAL OF PERSIA AND ITS COSTLY TREASURES.

Now, through one of the magnificent gates that open on the seven roads leading into the capital

we enter Teheran, a city of 200,000 inhabitants. Over the most imposing gate flies the flag of Persia, the Lion and the Sun, golden, on a green background. At sunrise and sunset, musicians enter a gallery over the gateway and salute the sun with welcome or farewell. This picturesque city shows at first glance the national love of beauty. We observe the graceful arches of the humblest shops decorated with glazed tiles and gilding, while the dwellings of the upper classes are rich in marbles, costly woods, and marvelous carving. The most interesting part of the city is the group of buildings called The Ark, or Citadel, which includes foreign offices of the government, the arsenal, and the royal palace of the Shah. In this palace is the famous Peacock Throne, designed to represent a peacock with spreading tail, covered with gold and studded thickly with glittering jewels. Its cost is estimated at $13,000,000. Before it lies a wonderful silk rug, inwoven with rarest pearls. Here also is a marvelous gold globe, each country being set with precious stones, turquoise being used for Persia as that is the only precious stone found in the Empire. The principal avenue in Teheran is the Boulevard des Ambassadeurs, planted with poplar trees, and here are located the British and other legation buildings.

How strange seems the quiet of this city to a European or an American! Persian cities have no bells; the people are summoned to prayer by the musical cry of a man called a muezzin. There is no rattle of vehicles; only the tinkle of the bells on camel or mule train, or the voice of a street vendor, breaks upon a silence that has existed since the beginning of the world.

WHAT ONE SEES IN THE STREETS OF TEHERAN.

Let us take a stroll through the business section of the capital, and be entertained at seeing many occupations carried on in the open street. There are

numerous roofed shops, or bazaars, where merchandise, cheap or costly, is sold; but grocers, butchers, bakers, confectioners, carpenters, barbers, all pursue their trades on the sidewalk, regardless of the passing public. Even the schoolhouses, while under a roof, are open to the street on one side, like a booth at a fair. The teacher sits so that he can keep one eye on the street and the other on his pupils, who squat in rows on their heels, reciting their lessons in chorus. The pupils are all boys, as it is not considered necessary or proper to send girls of the better families to school. Such education as they have is acquired at home, under tutors. Girls of the lower classes receive very little education of any kind.

After school we can see the boys playing out-of-door games, or galloping through the streets on handsome horses, for nearly all boys of the upper class possess fine horses and become as expert and dashing riders and huntsmen as their elders, who hunt the native lions and tigers in the forests, the wild ass, the antelope, mountain sheep and goats, the wild heron, partridges, and other birds. Most boys are also well drilled in military exercises; but they mature early and often settle down as married men while still in the 'teens.

The girls are more restricted in their amusements than their brothers; out-of-door sports are not for them, but they learn how to do the most exquisite embroidery and other needlework, to compound delicious sweets of all kinds, to look after a household, and to make themselves attractive.

Persian children are wonderfully beautiful. Nowhere are young people found with such rich, blooming complexions, large, brilliant eyes, and graceful forms. The men all have regular features, oval faces, soft dark eyes, and abundant glossy black hair, with sweeping beards, of which their owners are immensely proud.

HOW THE PERSIANS DRESS.

The costume of the men consists chiefly of full, loose trousers, covered with long flowing robes of silk or cotton, a large, many-folded turban crowning the head. The boys dress in the same way. Military men wear uniforms like those of Europeans in cut, but much more brilliantly decorated.

Women in Persia, and girls after the age of twelve, live a very secluded life, as in most eastern countries. A part of every dwelling, called the Anderoon, is set aside for their use. No man ever enters it except the head of the family, and from it they never go out in such fashion that anyone could recognize them. You have wondered to see so many awkward, shapeless, clumsy figures waddling through the streets, with the face completely covered up to the eyes by a thick white drapery. Perhaps you have thought they must be old women, from their unattractive appearance. Not necessarily; old and young look the same when out-of-doors, since they never leave the house without being heavily veiled and wearing wrappings so voluminous as to hide the figure completely. Disguised thus, any woman may go where she pleases, the ladies of the royal household excepted. Indoors the costume of the ladies is of the lightest and gayest description. Only village women and laborers go unveiled.

A PERSIAN BAZAAR—ORNAMENTS AND RUGS.

Here we turn into a picturesque street, full of tempting bazaars. We have a sum of money in our pockets that we have been saving for just this opportunity, for we really must carry back something characteristically oriental to the best beloved at home. What shall it be? It is hard to choose. The turbaned, blackbearded merchant rises as we pause before his shop, and bows with a courtly air, looking like a picture from the *Arabian Nights*. He holds up a choice length of matchless embroidery, then a dainty bit of

porcelain, an exquisite shawl from the Vale of Cashmere; boxes of silver and gold, inlaid with marvelous enamels or with delicate designs in ivory; velvets heavy with gold and silver threads; superb bits of mosaic from old palaces and mosques, some of the beautiful brass vases and small mirror-cases in the manufacture of which Persia has no equal. How shall we make a choice? Just at this minute the wily Persian displays something quite different—a rug that makes us sigh with admiration. This is what we wanted all the time—a magnificent Persian rug, for no country in the world is so celebrated as Persia in the making of rugs and carpets. They are all made by hand, without exception, being stretched on frames set up in dwelling-houses, as the American Indians make their blankets and rugs. All the members of a family work at one rug, the pattern to be followed lying before them, perfectly drawn and colored. As a rule, considerable license is allowed for the exercise of individual taste in following these patterns, so that no two rugs are exactly alike; and the owner of an old Persian rug may be sure that he is not likely to find another precisely like his own.

The Persians learned their wonderful art of rug-making from the Babylonians many centuries before Christ's birth. The Persian rug is the most durable of all such fabrics; many of them, however, are not intended for floor coverings, but with their silky richness drape carved tables or soft divans, or are hung upon the wall for all to admire, after the manner of a painting. The most important class of Persian rugs are those of Feraghân, Kermanshâh, Kermân, Khorassân, Kurdistan, and the Turkoman rugs, most beautiful of all. There is one kind of Persian rug that never leaves the country, because of its great weight and size. These are the *namâds*. They are of a mouse-gray tint, and are made by heaping a low trench with hairs and beating them with mallets until they are even with

the edge of the trench; this compressed mass is then wet, turned, and beaten, then turned and beaten again, until it assumes a dense, compact texture. Bright-colored threads beaten in the upper side form charming patterns. On this rug one may walk in heavy shoes with as little noise as the tread of a lion's foot on the sands of the desert. These rugs are sometimes eighty feet long and fifty feet wide. Another variety, which seldom leaves the country, is the *ghilleem*—long, narrow, thin, made of cotton of unfading colors of extraordinary richness, and as washable as a piece of white cambric.

RELIGION AND LITERATURE.

In religion the Persians are Mohammedans, believing in one God and following the teachings of Mohammed, the Arabian prophet, born in the year 500 A.D., who called his religion *Islam,* which means "resignation to the will of God." Many beautiful Mohammedan mosques (churches) are seen in Teheran. All services are conducted in the Persian language, which is the most melodious of all eastern tongues. Its characters bear a resemblance to Arabic, and are written from right to left. The Persians have many religious holidays, festivals, fasts, and prayers. Every year one whole month, Ramazan, is given up to fasting, during which time the bazaars and shops are closed. The Koran is the Bible of the followers of the Prophet.

Among the Persians' favorite writers are four famous poets: Firdausi, who lived in the tenth century, author of the *Shah-Namah,* or "Book of Kings," an epic poem of 120,000 lines, narrating the achievements of the ancient Persian kings from the mythical days of Kaiumers, the first Persian king, down to the Mohammedan conquest in 641 A.D.; Sadi, also of the tenth century, whose fame rests on two great works, the *Bustân* ("Garden of Perfumes") and

the *Gulistân* ("Garden of Roses"), both having a high moral tone, besides abounding in charming anecdotes and bright illustrations; Omar Khayyám (meaning "tent-maker"), also of the tenth century, renowned as poet, mathematician, astronomer, and philosopher, author of the famous Rubaiyât (quatrains, or stanzas of four lines each), a poem of about five hundred lines, full of thought and beauty of expression, though sad, cynical, and mystical; and Hafiz, of the fourteenth century (whose name means "one who knows the Koran by heart"), Persia's greatest romantic lyrical poet, who saw God reflected in the human soul, and poured his own soul into his verse. The works of all these poets have been translated into many languages.

Peru.

HER INTERESTING HISTORY.

TRADITIONS tell us that a powerful government, that of the Pirua, was master of the highlands of Peru and Bolivia in pre-historic times, and to the people of this dynasty, though their real character is unknown, are ascribed the remarkably interesting ruins and remains found at Tiahuanaco and Cuzco. This mysterious government is supposed to have been broken up about the year 1000 A.D. The next known ruling people of this region were the Incas, who established their power at Cuzco about 1240 and in the sixteenth century ruled on the highest plateaus of the Andes and a long stretch of the Pacific coast.

So far as can be known, the Incas were originally a tribe of powerful and highly intelligent Indians called Quichua, the word Inca meaning a chief or leader, though in time it was used to designate the whole Quichua people. According to their traditions,

all the Incas sprang from a half-mythical pair, whose history, like those of Romulus and Remus and the old Greek heroes, marks the boundary between legitimate record and vague fables. Indian legends say that the first Incas were children of the sun. This much is certain, that they founded the city of Cuzco, and taught their men how to till the ground and their women to spin and weave. The eldest son of the ruler succeeded to the throne, and a direct line of succession is recorded from 1240 to 1523. During that period of nearly three centuries, this remarkable people extended their territory until it embraced all the coast and mountain region now included in Peru and Ecuador, the basin of Lake Titicaca, portions of the eastern slopes of the Andes, and a part of Chile. They built cities, and conducted irrigation on a great scale, thus making the soil fertile for the raising of vast quantities of grain; they built huge granaries in which these products were stored for the use of armies and in case of an unproductive year; fine roads were constructed, and a kind of inn at convenient points, for the use of travelers; they had a post-service of their own devising, and a well-organized army. All gold belonged to the reigning Inca, and the palaces and temples were decorated and furnished with much magnificence. Their records of events were peculiar; they consisted of a crude form of picture-writing, and of a system of knotted, colored strings. The length, the color, and the curious knotting of these strings bore a certain meaning, which could be understood by those who had learned this method of making records. Their manufactured fabrics were marvelous in texture, coloring, and design; their pottery was of unique design and artistry; and their metal-workers could turn out ornamental gold and silver objects equal to those of the most famous goldsmiths of Spain.

In an evil day for Peru, there landed on her shores in 1528 a Spanish soldier, explorer and adventurer,

Francisco Pizarro. He had been in Panama, and while there had heard rumors of a rich country in the south. These rumors, as he saw on his arrival, were well founded, and he hastened to report his discovery to the Spanish government, which sent him back to Peru empowered to conquer and settle it and to be its governor. The Inca, who had treated Pizarro and his men kindly on their first visit, welcomed them again; but the treacherous Spaniards seized the proud chief and made him a prisoner. He tried to purchase his liberty with gold amounting to $17,500,000 of modern money. Pizarro took the gold, but basely murdered the Inca, and in a short time conquered the whole country, massacring thousands and allowing only a few to live. One of these survivors eventually murdered Pizarro himself in his palace at Lima, which city he had founded. Some of the descendants of the Incas still live in Peru and are regarded with a sort of affectionate respect by the people. Although the Spanish language prevails, as in all the South American countries once under Spanish rule, the ancient Quichua tongue is heard among the Indians of the Peruvian mountains.

THE PERU OF TODAY.

Peru today has an area of 697,640 square miles, and a population of 4,500,000, many of whom are Indians. The educated and ruling class are descendants of mingled Spanish and Indian blood, and of pure Spanish.

The great double mountain range of the Andes follows the coast—the Cordilleras, about twenty miles from the shore, and the Andes proper, about a hundred miles farther inland. Among the Cordilleras are the rich deposits of minerals that have made Peru famous—gold, silver, copper, and lead. In two hundred years one of these mines yielded $475,000,000 worth of silver.

The highest and most wonderful railway in the world runs from Lima, the capital, to Oroya, far up

among the Cordilleras. It was begun in 1869 by an American from New York, Henry Meiggs. This railway lifts its breathless passengers in an appallingly short time 18,000 feet above the sea, near Callao, the seaport of Lima, nine miles distant. At intervals during the ascent comes in the marvelous device for climbing the precipices by means of a road zig-zagging up the face of the mountain as a hunter makes a trail up an almost perpendicular hill. Up and up the train goes, till vegetation disappears. At last snow-blanketed peaks rise everywhere, at 15,665 feet above the sea.

Pizarro called his capital the City of the Kings, and this name was used for many years. Under the Spanish viceroys the court was the most magnificent in America. The revolutionists took it from the viceroys in 1821. From 1881 to 1883 Peru and Chile were at war over disputed land containing vast beds of valuable nitrate. Peru was conquered, and Lima, the capital, suffered severely at the hands of the Chileans, a single instance being the fact that they broke into the fine National Library and used priceless old manuscripts to light their cigars. Lima has also suffered from earthquakes, the most severe occurring in 1740, when a thousand persons were killed. Today the capital is an attractive city, with well-paved streets and many public squares adorned with fountains and statues of the South American liberators and heroes.

The cathedral was founded by Pizarro, and is a large and beautiful edifice. Within its crypt lies the body of the Spanish adventurer.

The University of San Marcos is the oldest in America, founded in 1551. The youth of the upper class here complete their education. Almost all girls are sent to convent schools, and are as strictly watched and guarded as are their young Spanish cousins across the Atlantic.

Society in Lima is noted for intelligence, culture, and hospitality. Rising from the tyrannical old City

of the Kings is the new city of a twentieth-century republic. The energy that its citizens used to expend in eloquent speeches on liberty is now applied to the solving of social and business problems and to looking after internal improvements.

Poland.

THE HOME OF A BRAVE PEOPLE.

IN the fifth century a tribe of Vandals known as Poliani appeared on the great plain that lies at the southwest corner of Russia and directly east of Prussia. They divided the land into provinces, each of which was governed for a long time by chiefs called Palatines. As years passed they developed the region they had settled (which was larger than the State of Texas) into a prosperous country, for, although the climate there is cold and moist, the soil is very fertile, vegetation is rich, and for centuries great herds of cattle, horses, and swine have been reared there. It has immense salt mines, also mines of gold, silver, iron and lead.

From the thirteenth century the Poliani, or Poles, became the most warlike nation in Europe. In 1674 they chose their first king, John Sobieski, and under monarchical rule Poland acquired and held for a time a glory that eclipsed all other nations of that age. But the belligerent character of the Poles kept them always in broils with other countries; besides which, her prosperity and fertility excited the envy of her neighbors. At last, in 1772 three powerful nations—Russia, Prussia, and Austria—fell upon Poland and began to tear her to pieces. Then the despoilers fought among themselves over their prey, with the result that Russia absorbed 220,500 square miles of Poland, Prussia obtained 26,000 square miles, and Austria 35,000. The brave nation, which bitterly resisted its unhappy fate,

ceased to exist as an independent people, and in 1868 their country became a province of the great Russian Empire. It has today a population of more than 9,000,000.

POLAND'S GREAT PATRIOT.

A picturesque historical figure connected with the partition of Poland between Russia, Prussia, and Austria, and one of particular interest to Americans, was that of the gallant general and patriot, Thaddeus Kosciusko, of an ancient princely race, who when he failed to win the hand of the noble maiden of his choice, came to the United States in 1777. After the outbreak of the American Revolution he offered his military aid and served gallantly throughout the war, was made a member of the Society of the Cincinnati, and a brigadier-general by brevet, and received the thanks of Congress. Returning to Poland, he fought the Russians against further spoliation of his native land, becoming dictator for the people and driving the Russians beyond the frontier. For a moment the liberty of Poland seemed assured. But in spite of their wonderful valor, the Poles, with Kosciusko at their head, were overpowered, and their noble commander fell, covered with wounds. This catastrophe drew forth from the English poet, Thomas Campbell, in his poem *The Pleasures of Hope,* the famous lines:

> Hope for a season bade the world farewell,
> And Freedom shrieked as Kosciusko fell!

The patriot was imprisoned for some time in St. Petersburg, but was released, and went to live in Switzerland, where he died in 1817, having first set free all the serfs, or slaves, on his estate in Poland.

OPPRESSIVE SERFDOM.

During the centuries of monarchical rule, the Polish people were divided into three classes; the nobles or landowners; the superior peasantry, who though

personally free were compelled to perform certain services for the nobles; and the lower peasantry, or serfs, who were virtually slaves and were not set free until 1861, when the Russian Emperor abolished serfdom throughout his dominions. The serf class included not only peasants but merchants and tradesmen; all these were the property of their masters and had no rights whatever. Yet these people were attached to their lords, and had a certain amount of dignity and independence. The nobles were absolute owners of the soil, and allowed the peasants only a bare living from the product of their hard labor. One of the results of this oppression was that when the invaders seized upon Poland, many among the lower classes sided with them against their masters.

LANGUAGE, GOVERNMENT, EDUCATION.

The Polish language is still spoken in the province generally, though for a long time Russia has discouraged and even prohibited its use in its efforts to effect the denationalization of Poland. Russian has been made the language of the courts, the administration and the educational system. Poles of the higher class are distinguished by their cultivated minds, polite manners, and personal bravery. They are not tall, the average height being about five feet and four inches. The people of the north are fair-skinned, while in the south they are dark. The men are not so good-looking as the women, who among the upper class are celebrated for their beauty, accomplishments, and vivacity.

Poland is directly controlled by a governor-general, who represents the Emperor of Russia and has supreme direction of civil and military affairs. All young men are obliged to serve five years in the Russian army (with the exception of doctors, teachers, and clergymen), and are liable to be called upon in the reserves for thirteen years.

The schools are under the control of the Russian Minister of Public Instruction, but though many excellent schools of the higher class—universities and special schools—are in existence, the general level of education is low. Libraries are not numerous outside of Warsaw, once the ancient fortified capital of the kingdom of Poland, now the chief city of the province, standing on the left bank of the Vistula River, and almost in the center of Poland. It is built on a hill, which gradually descends into a flat plain, and consists of the old town, the new town, and suburbs. Walls and ditches surround the city, which has at its lower end the Alexander citadel, with a monument of Alexander I, Czar of Poland and Emperor of Russia.

WARSAW—THE SEAT OF GOVERNMENT.

Warsaw is the seat of the governor-general with royal military powers, of a civil governor, and of a Roman Catholic and a Greek Catholic archbishop. The city is most favorably situated for trade and commerce as the navigable Vistula River, the highroads running in all directions, the railway lines to Moscow, St. Petersburg, Vienna, Dantzic, and Berlin combine to make it a center of European-Asiatic traffic. The chief manufacturing industries of Poland are in Warsaw, where linen, woolen, cotton, and silk fabrics and goldware and silverware are produced; there are also extensive breweries and distilleries.

Formerly the appearance of Warsaw was very inharmonious; miserable, dirty huts stood next to magnificent palaces, and the streets were ill-paved or not paved at all. The huts have disappeared, and the streets, traversed by many railway lines, are the equal of any in Russia. There are twelve beautiful public squares, containing many historical monuments. Cracow Street is adorned with an equestrian statue of King Poniatowski, by the great Danish sculptor, Thorwaldsen. Another splendid statue, of Coperni-

cus, by the same master, stands in the Cracow suburbs.

The building that best shows the fondness of the old Polish nobility for display is the royal palace, with its stately senate-hall, its historical pictures and sculptures, its unique library, and the archives of unhappy Poland's stormy history. Other palaces of former nobles are royal in their magnificence.

Portugal.

THE COUNTRY THAT SUPPLIES US WITH CORK.

LIKE Spain, her larger next-door neighbor, Portugal is a mountainous country, though she has many fertile plains, on which grow a large variety of fruits, great quantities of grapes from which rich wines are made, and vast forests of the valuable cork-oak, from the bark of which almost all the corks that we use are manufactured. Cattle, sheep, and hogs are reared in great numbers by the farming population, which includes a large class among the 5,000,000 inhabitants. Along the coast are several harbors, the best two being at Lisbon, the capital, and at Oporto, in that part of the country where the grape that produces the famous wine called port is cultivated. The coast is dotted with many fishing-towns, in which the annual catch of sardines is almost as great as in France.

A GENTLE AND SIMPLE PEOPLE.

Portuguese olives, oil, and oranges are celebrated, and are exported largely every year. The fruits are produced in the rich soil and sunshine almost without cultivation, for the working classes, though industrious and bright, have very little education and do their work after old-fashioned methods and with antiquated implements. The educated class is comparatively small and possesses all the wealth and power. Apparently they do not wish the humbler people to

rise, for school laws are not enforced, and the number of grown persons, as well as children, that can neither read nor write is very large.

They are a gentler people than their Spanish neighbors; murder among them never is punished with death, and even in prison a criminal enjoys privileges that do not suggest the idea of punishment. Many of the jails have no glass in their windows, and the prisoner may chat comfortably through them with sympathetic friends in the street, or even extend his hand in an appeal for alms to the passers-by.

The Portuguese even of the upper class live very simply. In the city streets one sees large mansions that look as if their owners must live handsomely; but the bare, whitewashed rooms of these grand-looking houses contain only the plainest furniture, no carpets, and few pictures or ornaments worthy the name. This class supports its grandeur easily. Servants are cheap, and few are needed for the usual manner of living. A little embroidery, a great deal of churchgoing and of peeping into the streets through blinds, in search of material for gossip—this is the customary way in which the olive-complexioned, dark-eyed, raven-haired Portuguese ladies and girls pass their time.

Though the working class are ignorant, superstitious, and economical to miserliness, yet they are a joyous, happy people. They care little for book-knowledge, and many large towns are without a single bookshop; but they enjoy bull-fights, and delight to follow the romantic customs of olden times. The lover still twangs his guitar unabashed under his lady's window, and young and old, rich and poor, dance the graceful old measures, accompanied by castenets, that the Portuguese have danced for centuries.

Rising in Spain on the east and flowing west across the middle of Portugal runs the river Tagus, a fine, navigable stream, and along its banks the tourist sees the life of much of the country. The windmills on

all sides remind him of Holland, though not nearly so numerous; oxen and bullocks toil along the roads, dragging heavy, antiquated carts, and donkeys are used far more than horses. The cork-oak regions are interesting, and they cover thousands of acres. The cork-oak is an evergreen tree, of considerable height and thickness. The cork is procured from the soft bark, which is cut off the tree in sheets. These, flattened, cleaned, and hardened, are ready for use. The value of the yearly export of cork is about $3,000,000.

GAYLY DRESSED OPORTO.

Oporto, in the northern part of Portugal, is on both sides of the Douro River, and is a highly picturesque place built on steep, terraced hills covered with gayly painted houses—pink, blue, yellow, red. Some of the streets are broad and handsome, with magnificent houses belonging to wealthy families; others are so crooked and narrow that vehicles can not pass through them. There are factories for the production of gold and silverware, cut glass, and other luxuries, and cork-cutting is an important industry; but the city's chief export is port wine, the best of which is sent to England. From Oporto and Lisbon is carried on all the great trade with the Portuguese in South America, who form the greater part of the population of Brazil and control that vast republic.

EARLY PORTUGUESE ADVENTURERS.

Centuries ago, when the Christians began to drive out the Mohammedans from southern Europe, Portugal formed a small, independent kingdom, of which the first monarch was Alfonso Henriques. A succession of kings of different lines followed, and a scion of one of the royal houses, called Prince Henry the Navigator because of his fondness for following the sea, conceived the idea of sailing around Africa to reach India. Under his encouragement of exploration

the Madeira and Cape Verde Islands were discovered and settled. Then Bartholomew Diaz, a bold Portuguese navigator, reached the Cape of Good Hope in 1486. After this grand discovery triumphant Portugal became the center of sea-faring knowledge; and in 1497 another adventurous Portuguese, Vasco da Gama, won fresh glory for his country by reaching the long-desired India by way of the Cape of Good Hope. Portuguese trading-posts were established on the Asiatic coast, Ceylon was conquered, and the whole stream of eastern trade was turned into Lisbon.

In 1500 another Portuguese, Ferdinand Magellan, discovered Brazil in South America, and took possession of it in the name of his sovereign. Great numbers of Portuguese emigrated to the new land, and few ever returned to the mother country. After a time Portugal was seized by the Spanish king, Philip II, and soon Portuguese vessels of commerce were swept from the seas. In 1640 England helped Portugal in a successful revolt against Spain, and a new crown was given to the head of the House of Braganza. In 1755 one of the greatest earthquakes in history occurred in Lisbon, destroying the city and killing thirty thousand persons. Napoleon invaded Portugal in 1807, with the intention of setting up his rule there; but the British came to the rescue and soon drove him out. In 1822 Brazil broke away from the control of Portugal and chose an emperor for herself, a son of the Portuguese king. After this, matters in Portugal went along peacefully but not very progressively for many years until, early in the twentieth century, murmurs began to arise against the ruling powers from discontented subjects, who openly declared that they wanted the monarchy changed to a republic. In October, 1910, a plot to overthrow the monarchy was carried out; the royal family was driven out of the kingdom, and the Portuguese Republic was proclaimed, its first president being Theophile Braga, leader of the revolutionists.

The Roman Empire.

THE FOUNDING OF A GREAT CITY AND THE STRANGE STORY OF ROMULUS AND REMUS AND THE WOLF.

ROME is a broken mirror, the fragments of which still reflect the imposing images of heroes, citizens, and nations, in glory and splendor, in blood and misery, in ruin and decay; but let us gaze upon these ruins long enough, and they will combine into a wonderful whole; the images will group themselves into a vast world-picture so dazzling that eyes and soul are filled with awe and wonder.

Romantic legend and partly true tradition are intermingled in the earliest records of the beginnings of Rome. The men that lived in the days of the first Roman republic believed that the settlement of the city was made 753 years before the birth of Christ, by the twin brothers Romulus and Remus, who had been thrown into the river Tiber by their uncle, after he had dethroned their grandfather, Numitor, king of Alba Longa, in southern Italy; that the brothers were washed ashore at the foot of the Palatine Hill and were nursed for a time by a she-wolf, and then were rescued and reared by a shepherd; that when they grew to manhood they learned from whom they sprang, restored their grandfather to his throne, left Alba Longa, and began to build a town at the foot of the Palatine Hill; that Romulus killed his brother in a quarrel, but went on building his city, which grew and prospered; and that he was at last translated into a god and worshiped under the name of Quirinus. Romulus was king of his city, and was succeeded by three Sabine and Roman kings, these being followed by three Etruscan kings of the family of Tarquin, the last of whom, Tarquinius Superbus, was driven from his throne for his wickedness. The kingdom then was at an end, and a republic was established 509 B.C.

These stories of the first group of kings are simply traditional, since the earliest historians had only the

tales handed down from father to son to depend on, because the first records of the city were destroyed 390 B.C., when Rome was invaded by the barbaric Gauls. But it is certain that a great leader founded the "city of the seven hills" lying on both sides of the river Tiber; that the first settlement was made on the largest hill, called Palatine, by shepherds and farmers from Latium, known as Latins; and that they built around the hill a massive wall for defense, part of which was uncovered in the nineteenth century.

By and by another settlement was formed by the Sabines, on the Quirinal Hill, opposite the Palatine. The two settlements were at war for some time over the possession of the lands surrounding them, but finally were united into one people and one city, the first step toward consolidation that in time made Rome the most powerful city of the world.

A third settlement was made on the Cælian Hill, by the Luceres, but it soon became incorporated with the other two, the three forming a sort of city-state, with customs and habits in common and well fitted to defend itself. Under the second Etruscan king, Servius Tullius, a great wall had been added to the one built in the time of Romulus, encircling not only the Palatine, but all seven of the hills. These walls were constructed of great blocks of stone; they lasted many centuries, and parts of them are still standing.

EARLY GOVERNMENT OF ROME.

Heads of families in that first Roman society were absolute rulers of their little circles. All had to obey the father; should children or servants misbehave, the father and master had power to punish as he pleased, even to putting them to death. Several families that had an ancestor in common formed a sort of clan of their own; these clans were called *gens*. The chiefs of the different clans united in a larger society for the general defense and for the worship of such gods as they chose. Each settlement had at first its own king;

but after the three settlements had blended into a single community one king was established over all; he was chosen by the people, and was also their chief priest, military commander, and judge.

Among these early clans a spirit of exclusiveness developed, which made the patricians, as the descendants of the first settlers were called, hold aloof from the plebeians, people who lived in Rome, but had been brought there as captives in battles with other cities, or who had escaped from other conquerors and found refuge within its walls. As these people did not belong to Rome's "first families," the patricians allowed them no share in the government, and for long years they were oppressed in many ways. But after the kingdom was changed to a republic, liberal-minded sympathizers among the patricians came to the aid of the common people, finally obtaining for them the right to hold office, to vote, to own property and make contracts, and to marry among the patricians. They also caused the publishing of the original Roman laws, which never had been made public and were known only to the patricians. These laws were inscribed on twelve tables of brass, and every schoolboy was compelled to learn them by heart. Some years later (367 B.C.) laws even more liberal were passed, called the Licinian Laws, from their originator, C. Licinius Stolo, which brought about perfect harmony among all classes and formed the foundation of the future strength of the Romans.

ROMAN CONQUESTS.

This now powerful people resolved to bring the whole of Italy under their rule; and for more than two hundred years the country was one great battlefield of the Romans and the Volscians, Latins, Samnites, Umbrians, Æquians, and Etruscans. At last all these peoples were conquered, and the Roman domain was extended from sea to sea.

Still hungering for further power, Rome determined to conquer the cities occupied by Greeks at the extreme southern point of Italy. Pyrrhus, the Grecian king of Epirus, came promptly to their aid; but though he brought a brave army, and had huge elephants to trample down the enemy, he was defeated (272 B.C.), and all the cities on the southern coast submitted to Roman power.

During this long period of warfare the Romans had constructed wonderful military roads, by which they could march into every part of Italy. Chief among these were the Appian Way and the Flaminian Way. The remains of some of these roads of the republic exist to the present time.

HANNIBAL'S MARCH ACROSS THE ALPS.

These wars in the south brought Rome into direct conflict with Carthage, the principal power on the Mediterranean Sea. That city was on the northern coast of Africa, near the place where we find the city of Tunis on our maps. During the struggle between Rome and Carthage, a young general named Hannibal came into command of the Carthaginians, who were Rome's greatest rivals in wealth, civilization, commerce, and strength. While Rome sent two armies into the Carthaginian country, this brilliant young soldier, one of the greatest the world ever has seen, took his own great army into Spain, crossed the Pyrenees Mountains into Gaul with sixty thousand men and a terrifying array of elephants, made his way to the Alps, marched across those tremendous heights, descended triumphantly into Italy, and met the Romans on their own ground, almost annihilating the army that encountered him. But in spite of the amazing cleverness of Hannibal, the greater numbers on which Rome could draw, and her grim resolve to conquer everything, finally reduced Carthage to submission by utter destruction. This war lasted twenty-

three years and included in the conquest Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, Spain, the Greek States, Asia Minor, and northern Africa.

EDUCATION AND RELIGION.

The thought of Rome's victories usually suggests only the great battles she fought, the armies she routed, and the countries she forced to submission. But she gained more than these. With the conquest of foreign lands, she adopted foreign ideas, greatly to her benefit. While she plundered foreign temples, she gained new ideas of religion and art. The educated captives that she took in war became the teachers of Roman children. Thus these foreign peoples of superior culture (especially the Greeks) civilized Rome, as was evident in her new views of religion and philosophy, in her art, her literature, and her manners. In time not only the letters and the spoken words but the writings that made the great body of Roman literature became the heritage of mankind. Of how much we owe to the Romans we may judge by the fact that we are also to read today the thoughts that once amused, instructed and inspired that great people in the times of the republic and the empire: the comedies of Plautus and Terence, the poems of Virgil, the historical work of Cæsar, the satires of Horace and Juvenal, and the wonderful orations, letters, and essays of Cicero—all of which have had a strong influence on many great writers of modern times—upon Dante, Molière, Shakespeare, Goethe, and Milton. And by the preservation of the Latin language and literature the modern world has retained highly important means of culture and education.

THE RISE OF ONE OF THE GREATEST MEN IN HISTORY.

The next hundred years saw continuous civil war in Italy, because of the mistakes and bad government

of the ruling class; and the republic moved on toward a different form of government, which, after the efforts of several reformers to change affairs for the better, and the tyranny of self-appointed rulers, developed in the autocracy (46 B.C.) of a new ruler, Julius Cæsar, who within eight years had conquered all the territory bounded by the Pyrenees, the Alps, the Rhine, and the Atlantic Ocean, adding to these conquests successful campaigns in Egypt, Asia, Africa, and Spain.

Julius Cæsar was one of the greatest of soldiers and wisest of men; unyielding in war, but generous in peace, and great enough to forgive his enemies. The name "Imperator" had been a cry with which soldiers hailed a victorious general; this was now made into an official title by which Cæsar was called, and under it he became (in fact, if not in name) the first Roman emperor.

Cæsar's reign was short, but he made many reforms in favor of the common people, which lasted long after his death. He had enemies, however, jealous men that thought he was trying to revive the kingship (an idea abhorrent to Romans since the fall of the wicked Tarquin's monarchy); and two of these, Brutus and Cassius, who had received benefits at Cæsar's hands and called him friend, assassinated the great leader in the Senate House, March 15, 44 B.C., thus depriving Rome of the noblest man she ever had produced.

THE EMPIRE.

Julius Cæsar was succeeded by his nephew Octavius, who became the first Roman emperor, taking the title of Augustus. During his brilliantly successful reign of forty-five years this emperor extended the frontiers of Italy, improved the management of the country's finances, established city guards and a fire department in Rome itself, and encouraged the arts and literature, with the result that the "Augustan Age" is spoken of as the golden period in the history

of Rome. In his reign were written Virgil's *Æneid* and the *Odes* of Horace.

Succeeding Augustus came his step-son Tiberius, and after him Caligula and Nero. These rulers, in the pages of Tacitus, pass before us like a procession of gloomy monsters; but the more unbiased sources available to modern research ascribe to their far-sighted economic policy the splendid civic prosperity of the Roman people in the beginning of the empire.

Confusion followed Nero's death, until the wise Emperor Vespasian came to the throne. During his reign Gaul became completely civilized, and the Roman language, literature, laws, and art found there a congenial home. Many ruins of ancient baths, aqueducts, and other buildings found in France today, prove how thoroughly the once barbarous Gaul was Romanized.

Vespasian's son Titus gave Rome an era even happier; and, after a reign of tyranny extending over fifteen years under Domitian, Rome enjoyed a long period of peace and prosperity under five good emperors: Nerva, Trajan, Hadrian, Antoninus Pius, and Marcus Aurelius, all of whom encouraged education, helped the poor, made just laws, and built some of the most magnificent public structures ever seen.

In spite of their virtues and wisdom, however, the empire began to decline after the death of Marcus Aurelius. The Roman people were spoiled with wealth, luxury, and dissipation; they lacked a wise ruler; they suffered from foreign wars and civil strife, from pestilence and famine, and, in the next hundred years, of twenty-three emperors all but three met a violent death.

In 284 A.D. the empire was reorganized under Diocletian as an absolute monarchy, the emperor assuming all power and authority, and giving the country a strong and efficient government. He was followed by Constantine, the first Christian emperor, who transferred the seat of government to the east, with

Byzantium as the capital of the Roman empire, its name being changed to Constantinople (the city of Constantine). Under his rule Christianity became the recognized Roman religion, the converts to which increased steadily; and from the time of Pope Gregory I it established an empire over the souls of men that never has been shaken.

The empire fell at last in 476; foreigners invaded the land, which had no organized forces to resist them; great tracts were laid waste; whole populations were killed or carried into slavery; and the country was divided into duchies, which were governed by foreign rulers. But, in the early part of the following century a wise and just ruler, the Emperor Justinian, who governed Rome from the throne at Constantinople, did for his empire, and unwittingly for generations of men throughout succeeding ages, a service that makes his name honored forever. He gathered together the great mass of Roman laws that had been growing for centuries, and put them into a complete form, known as the Justinian Code, and many of these are in practice today in European courts. If we were asked what was the most valuable work of Rome, we should say it was her system of law. Remember that men's lives, safety, and property are protected only by means of the law, and then you will realize how important it is that laws should be beneficent and just. The Romans showed their greatest ability in making such laws, which have had a powerful influence upon modern nations.

After centuries of changing emperors and popes, of war, division among alien peoples, of license and luxury, anarchy and desolation, the empire was divided into two parts, eastern and western, the eastern maintaining itself for nearly a thousand years, with its capital at Constantinople, until that city was taken by the Turks in 1453, the western being invaded by barbarian Germans, who finally became the real

power, overthrowing the last Roman monarch of the Western Empire, Romulus Augustulus, a boy six years old. The reins of government were seized by Odoacer, a German chief, who ruled over Italy as regent for the monarch of the Eastern division of the empire. Upon the customs and language of the Romans new ideas gradually became engrafted, and the fall of the empire in the west was in reality a transition to a new state of things, from which has sprung our modern civilization

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Russia.

THE COUNTRY.

THE most striking feature of the Russian Empire, from the point of view of a traveler, or even of a map-maker, is its enormous geographical extent. Very few Americans fully grasp and appreciate the fact that Russia exceeds in area the entire North American continent, and comprises more than one-sixth of the whole habitable globe. We are apt, unconsciously, to assume that because a country is usually mapped upon a small scale in our geographies, it must occupy a comparatively small part of the earth's surface; but the conclusion does not follow from the premises. If a geographer were preparing a general atlas of the world, and should use, in drawing Russia, the same scale that is used in the *Century Atlas* for England, he would have to make the Russian page in his book twenty-three feet in width to accommodate his map. If he should use, for Russia, the scale adopted by Colton, in his *Atlas of the United States,* for New Jersey, he would have to increase the width of his page to sixty feet. If he should delineate Russia upon the scale of the British ordnance-survey maps of England (the so-called "six-inch maps") he would be compelled to provide himself with a sheet of paper more than half

a mile wide, and his atlas, if laid out open, would cover the whole lower part of New York City from the Battery to City Hall. These illustrations are sufficient to show that if Russia were charted upon a scale corresponding with that employed in mapping other countries, its immense geographical area would be much more readily apprehended, and would appeal much more strongly to the imagination. The extreme width of the empire, from the Siberian cape of Cheliuskin to the Central Asiatic oasis of Merv, is two thousand four hundred miles, a distance as great as that from Greenland to the island of Cuba; while its extreme length, from Poland to Bering Strait, is six thousand miles, a distance about equal to that which separates California from Portugal. If Russia could be laid over the continents of the western hemisphere, so as to make its greatest length correspond with theirs, it would extend, one way, from Nova Scotia to the Rocky Mountains, and, the other way, from the Arctic Circle to the Amazon. The administrative subdivisions of this immense country are in proportion to its magnitude. The single Russian province of Tobolsk has a greater area than all our northern States, from Maine to Iowa, taken together. The province of Yeniseisk is larger than all the United States east of the Mississippi river, and the territory of Yakutsk is thirteen times as large as Great Britain, thirty-four times as large as the State of Pennsylvania, and might be divided into one hundred and eighty-eight such States as Massachusetts; and yet Yakutsk is only one of the ninety provinces and territories that go to make up the gigantic empire. A country of such vast extent must necessarily include all varieties of topography and scenery, from glacier-crowned alpine peaks to open cultivated plains, and all sorts of climate, from the intense cold of the polar circle to the fervent heat of the sub-tropics. The arctic seaboard of the empire, from Sweden to Bering

Strait, consists of low treeless plains, called "tundras" (toón-dras), where the thermometer falls in winter to sixty or seventy degrees below zero, and where, even in the six weeks of summer, nothing will grow except berry bushes, a few hardy flowers, and a great earth-covering mat of brownish arctic moss. The natives who inhabit this region travel over the snow on dog-sledges from September until June, and cakes of frozen reindeer-milk may be carried in bags throughout eight months of the year without thawing. In the extreme southern part of the empire, on the other hand, the thermometer, in summer, frequently goes above 100 degrees in the shade, while the people grow cotton, rice, tobacco, grapes, melons, oranges, and pomegranates, and carry their produce to market on the backs of two-humped Bactrian camels. Between these two extremes of North and South—between the frozen tundras of the arctic seaboard and the fertile oases or valleys of Central Asia and the Caucasus—there is a vast intermediate zone, five hundred to fifteen hundred miles in width, where topography, climate, scenery, and products are as much diversified as they are in the corresponding latitudes of Canada and the United States. In the South the great mountain ranges of the Caucasus and the Altai, whose snowy peaks reach heights from ten thousand to eighteen thousand feet, furnish scenery as wild and picturesque as any to be found in the Sierras or the Rockies, while north of them, in Siberia as well as in European Russia, there are immense areas of cultivated lands, which produce a large part of the world's supply of wheat, and vast stretches of primeval forest, which will supply the population with firewood and building materials for centuries to come. Generally speaking, the Russian Empire consists, for the most part, of level or gently rolling plains, and has a climate which corresponds roughly with that of Canada and the northern States of the United States.

On one side, however, it extends into the arctic regions, just as Canada does, while on the other, it stretches southward to deserts as hot as those of Arizona, and valleys as fertile and productive as those of California. The great range of its climatic temperature is shown by the fact that in southeastern Siberia, at certain seasons of the year, the arctic reindeer from the extreme north meets the tropical tiger from the far south, and both are hunted in the same place. A country that has such a range of climate presents, of course, an abundant and diversified flora. In one part of the empire or another may be found most of our common trees and at least two-thirds of our cultivated flowers. In Siberia, which should be described as the land of flowers, rather than the land of snow and ice, there are more than a thousand species of blossoming plants, including the larkspur, pæony, columbine, nasturtium, rose, rocket, fire-weed, adder-tongue, anemone, poppy, violet, pansy, geranium, clematis, morning-glory, azalea, lily of the valley, and nearly all the familiar annuals and perennials that brighten American gardens in summer. In the Caucasus, grapevines and orange and pomegranate-trees are cultivated for their fruit, while apple-trees, pear-trees, and peach-trees grow wild.

THE PEOPLE.

The people of Russia, who now number about one hundred and sixty millions, differ almost as widely as the climates of the country in which they live, and represent every stage of human development, from the lowest savagery to the highest civilization. In the extreme northeastern part of the empire, the arctic nomads, who wander with their herds of domesticated reindeer over the snowy tundras, still use the stone axes of prehistoric man; while in St. Petersburg, Moscow, and the larger cities of the West, the educated classes live in electrically lighted houses, ride in

trolley cars, talk through telephones, experiment with aeroplanes, read the latest works of English and American scientists, and keep in touch with modern discoveries and achievements in all the varied fields of human thought and activity. Similar diversities and extremes in character, dress, and mode of life, characterize the various tribes and nationalities of which the heterogeneous population of the empire is composed. In the mountains of the Caucasus, the fierce and warlike Circassians live in castle-like stone houses, and wear a dress as showy and picturesque as that of the Scottish highlanders, while on the tundras of northern Siberia the timid and peaceful Samoyedes shelter themselves under fur tents, and wear clothing made from the skins of reindeer or wolves killed with bows and arrows or spears. The Turkomen of the Central Asiatic deserts are almost as uncultivated as were the Mongols of Genghis Khan when they invaded Russia in the thirteenth century, while the inhabitants of Finland are as well educated and as highly civilized as any of the peoples of western Europe. In race and origin, the differences are equally great. The Slavs, or true Russians, have always been the rulers of the country, and constitute sixty-five per cent of the population; but mingled with them, in Europe and Asia, are seventeen million Tartars and nearly seven million Jews, while in Siberia and the Caucasus there are many millions of aborigines who have been conquered by the Russians, but who do not belong to the Russian stock, nor share the Russians' ancestral inheritance. These natives represent at least three distinct races, and scores of tribes and nationalities, and the languages spoken by them number more than fifty. In the mountains of the eastern Caucasus there is a province called Daghestan, where eighteen different languages are spoken in an area not much greater than western New York. Of course these heterogeneous tribes and nationalities did not always form a part of

THE GREAT BELL, MOSCOW.—This wonderful "King of Bells" was designed for the Cathedral in Moscow where all the Czars are crowned. It weighs 444,000 pounds; within it forty people can assemble.

the Russian population. Six hundred years ago the country that is now known as the Russian Empire was a comparatively small principality, which had its capital in Moscow, and which was hardly larger than some of our American States. Its rulers and their successors, however, were pushing and aggressive, and they gradually extended their dominion over all north-eastern Europe and a large part of Asia, conquering and amalgamating the various tribes and nationalities that they encountered. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, they overran Siberia and reached the coast of the Pacific; in the eighteenth they subdued the Tartars of the Golden Horde and obtained free access to the Black Sea and the Caspian; and in the nineteenth they took possession of Finland, Poland, Central Asia, and the Caucasus. In this way they gradually acquired the territory that extended from the Baltic to the Pacific and from the Arctic ocean to the mountains north of India, and subjugated or reduced to a state of dependency more than fifty different peoples, tribes, or nationalities. In a population that is made up of so many heterogeneous elements, there is, of course, a great number of religions. The Russians, the Armenians, and the Georgians, belong to one branch or another of the Oriental or Greek Church; the Poles are mostly Roman Catholics; the Tartars and the Caucasian mountaineers are Mohammedans; the Mongols are Buddhists or Lamaists; the wandering arctic tribes are Shamanists; and the Jews, in spite of governmental persecution and repression, still cling tenaciously to their ancestral faith.

The Slavs, or true Russians, who govern the country, and make up the greater part of its population, number about one hundred and five millions. One-fifth of them are hereditary nobles, burghers, traders, artisans, or government employees, while four-fifths are peasants, who gain a livelihood by cultivating the soil. Until the middle of the nineteenth century, most

of these agricultural peasants were serfs, who were bought and sold with the land on which they lived; but in 1861 they were emancipated by a decree of the Emperor, Alexander II, and since that time they have enjoyed most of the rights and privileges of free citizens. The greater part of them—sixty millions out of eighty millions—are organized in local communes, and own their farm lands in common. At intervals of five to twenty years, these communes redistribute their lands among their members, giving to every family its proportionate share of the whole. In the United States the agricultural population is scattered over the country on detached farms which belong to the families that cultivate them, but in Russia the peasant farmers are merely tenants of their communes, and instead of living separately on the plots of land which they cultivate, they have their homes in more than four hundred thousand villages, and till the lands which lie adjacent to such villages, but which belong to the communes of which the villages are centers. Generally speaking, therefore, the agricultural population of Russia is a village population, cultivating farms in the country, and not a country population, living on its farms, and going into villages merely for purposes of trade.

Inasmuch as the peasants constitute four-fifths of the entire Russian population of the empire, and do more than four-fifths of the work upon which the maintenance of the empire depends, they may fairly be regarded as the predominating class, and may properly be called the Russian people. Physically, they are a rather large, well-developed, hardy, and enduring race of men, with excellent natural abilities, but with comparatively little education. Although capable of ruthlessness and ferocity when aroused, they are usually good-tempered, generous, hospitable, and affectionate, and to those who know them well they seem sympathetic and attractive. They are generally re-

garded by foreigners as unimaginative and stolid; but their rich and abundant folk-lore shows that they have as much creative imagination as any peasantry in Europe, and their love of poetry and music proves that, in these fields at least, they are gifted with artistic sensibility and appreciation. In early summer the slow, plaintive music of the boatmen's song, "Down the Mother Volga," may be heard on every river in European Russia, and in thousands of peasant villages, after the sun has set, the boys and girls form in parallel lines, holding one another's hands, and sing the *khorovod,* or song of spring, as they alternately advance and retire.

In point of material prosperity, the Russian peasants stand far below the common people of western Europe. Recent statistics show that in a population of more than one hundred millions, there are fewer than six hundred thousand who have incomes that exceed five hundred dollars a year. This comparative poverty is due partly to bad government and heavy taxation, and partly to lack of education, primitive agricultural implements, and insufficiency of land, More than seventy per cent of the agricultural peasants are still illiterate, and millions of families do not have land enough to furnish them with adequate support.

The food of the people, as a rule, consists of black rye-bread, *kasha,* or thick porridge made of barley or oats; fish or meat, as an occasional luxury; salted cucumbers, potatoes, butter and milk. Tea, made in brass "samovars" heated with charcoal, is the beverage of the empire, and all classes of the people drink it, at all hours of the day. *Vodka,* a strong alcoholic spirit distilled from rye, is the national stimulant, and on holidays, birthdays, and other festive occasions, the peasants drink a great deal more of it than they should. Fortunately, however, it seldom makes them quarrelsome, and one is not so likely to see intoxicated

muzhiks fighting as to see them walking the streets, singing, with their arms around one another's necks.

The straw-thatched houses of the common people are generally one story in height, contain from two to four rooms, and are usually made of logs, which the peasant carpenters fit together in tongue-and-groove courses, with great skill and with no other tool than the short-handled axe. The average house is warmed by a brick stove, or oven, five feet high and six or seven feet square, in which a wheelbarrow-load of wood is burned every morning. After the fire has burned down to a bed of coals, a cover is put on the chimney, to confine the hot air of the interior, and the thick walls slowly radiate heat for twenty-four hours. Although the primary object of this structure is the heating of the rooms in winter, the housewife cooks and bakes in the interior of it, and after it has grown cool, she warms food, if necessary, over the samovar. As the top of this massive stove or oven is flat, and it seldom gets very hot, the elder members of the family, on cold winter nights, use it as a bed. We sometimes read in Russian novels, of "sleeping on the stove" and wonder how it is managed. The explanation is that the Russian stove is a cube of masonry, six feet square, and that after the fire has been out for ten or twelve hours, the flat top retains only heat enough to warm thoroughly the bedding that is placed on it. Aside from the stove, which usually stands in the center of a four-room house, with a corner in each of the rooms, the furniture of the average peasant house consists of a few wooden tables and chairs, generally unpainted but scoured with white soap and sand, a single bed or two, standing against a wooden partition which does not go quite as high as the ceiling; a small mirror in the living-room; a few painted and tin-strapped trunks for spare clothing; half a dozen pots of flowers in the windows; and, in one corner, at a height of six feet from the floor, a small "ikon," or shrine, consist-

ing of a smoke-blackened portrait of the Madonna and Child or of some eminent Russian saint. In front of this shrine there is a shelf for tapers, or a small hanging lamp, and before it members of the household cross themselves and whisper a prayer, on arising in the morning and before going to bed at night. In houses like this, and with such furniture, millions of Russian peasant families now live, and have lived for centuries.

THE GOVERNMENT.

After the establishment of the principality of Moscow, in 1303, the Russian people lived for more than six hundred years under an absolute despotism of one sort or another. The Muscovite princes were succeeded by a line of Emperors, or Tsars, all of whom exercised autocratic power; and until the beginning of the present century, the right of the people to participate in the government of the empire never was recognized. An attempt was made in 1825, and again in 1880, to overthrow the absolute monarchy and give the nation freer institutions, but both of these attempts failed, and the assassination of Alexander II, by revolutionists, or so-called "nihilists," in 1881, was followed by an administrative reaction which continued for more than twenty years, and which made the subjection of the people almost as complete as it had been from 1825 to 1855 under the iron rule of Nicholas I. In 1905 the unpopular Russo-Japanese war created a feeling of profound national dissatisfaction, which finally led to another revolutionary movement of unprecedented energy and extent. All classes of the population united in the demand for greater freedom; the employees of the railroads everywhere went on strike; the peasants became insubordinate and attacked the landed proprietors, and there was fighting in all parts of the empire between the loyalists, supported by troops and police, on one side, and the disaffected population on the other. Fearing that he was about

to lose his throne, Nicholas II, in October, 1905, issued an imperial manifesto in which he not only promised to grant freedom of conscience, freedom of speech, freedom of assembly, and inviolability of personal rights, but gave notice of his intention to summon a national parliament, which should be elected by the people, and which should share with him the duties and responsibilities of government. This parliament, the first representative assembly that Russia had ever known, met in St. Petersburg on May 10, 1906. Meanwhile, however, the Emperor and his loyal supporters had succeeded in defeating and virtually crushing the imperfectly-organized and badly-led forces of the revolution, and had gained strength enough to reëstablish, in part at least, the old system of administrative repression and control. They therefore declared martial law in all the important cities and provinces of the empire; established military courts for the trial of political offenders; and dissolved the new parliament on the ground that it demanded unreasonable and revolutionary changes in the form of government and showed a disposition to confiscate the lands of the nobles and distribute them among the peasants. A new election was ordered, and a second parliament assembled; but when the Emperor found that it was even more radical and revolutionary than the first, he dissolved this also, and arbitrarily changed the election law in such a way as to disfranchise the greater part of the population and secure the election of a national assembly that he could control. Under the amended law was chosen a third parliament which, thus far, has usually supported the monarch and defended the interests of the conservative class that it so largely represents. The revolutionary outbreak, meanwhile, has been completely suppressed, and social order has everywhere been restored. This state of tranquillity, however, has been attained at immense cost. The Russian statistician, A. B. Ventin, has

recently set forth the losses of the Russian people, in their struggle for freedom, as follows:

Killed and wounded in punitive expeditions, street-fighting and partisan warfare, 58,472; Judicially punished by civil and military courts (including 3,015 hanged and 6,735 sent into penal servitude), 37,620; banished by the Central Government and still in exile in 1910, 22,588; total, 118,680.

If to these figures be added the number of revolutionists imprisoned or exiled by prefects under the provisions of martial law, of which there is no available record, the grand total will probably reach two hundred thousand, and may far exceed that number. These statistics are sufficient to show that the results of Russia's latest struggle for liberty are hardly commensurate with the cost. The people now have, nominally, a constitutional form of government and a representative assembly; but martial law still prevails over a large part of the empire; the Council of Ministers sets aside the laws of parliament whenever it sees fit to do so; the power of the Emperor and the bureaucracy is still supreme; and the promises of the freedom manifesto are still unfulfilled.

LANGUAGE, LITERATURE, AND EDUCATION

The Russian language which, with slight local variations, is spoken throughout the empire, belongs to the Aryan or Indo-European group, which includes also English, German, French, Italian, Latin, and Greek, as well as Persian and Sanscrit. It is a rich, copious, and flexible language, and is not so harsh in sound as it would seem to be when badly transliterated in English. It is written phonetically with an alphabet of thirty-six letters, and is not exceptionally hard to pronounce; but it presents great difficulties to the English or American student, on account of the multiplicity of its grammatical terminations. Its nouns, for example, have three genders, seven cases, and more than

twenty declensions, and there is an equal or greater number of inflectional variations in its regular and irregular verbs. It is this constant change of word-endings which makes it hard to learn, not the presence of unusual or extraordinary sounds. In this difficult language, however, there is an abundant literature, of several hundred thousand volumes, covering almost every field of art, science, and *belles lettres*. The works of the great Russian authors Gogol, Pushkin, Turgenief, Dostoyevski, and Tolstoi, have been translated into English, and are well-known to discriminating readers throughout Great Britain and the United States.

Popular education in Russia is backward because the Government never has made a serious effort to promote it. There are eleven good universities in the empire, and twice that number of high technical schools; but the facilities provided for the education of the common people are wholly inadequate. The peasants are eager to learn, but the Government does not maintain elementary schools enough to accommodate them, and the result is that seventy per cent of them can neither read nor write. In educational progress they have been wholly outstripped by the Negroes of the United States, whose ignorance, in 1865, was as great as that of the emancipated Russian serfs, but whose percentage of illiteracy now is only thirty-two. The backwardness of the Russians, however, is almost wholly due to Governmental oppression and neglect. They are a gifted people, and it may be confidently predicted that in the twenty-first century—if not in the latter part of the twentieth—when they shall have escaped from despotic control, and shall have had time and opportunity to develop their extraordinary natural abilities and talents, they will surprise the world with their achievements in science, art, music, literature, education, character-building, and all the higher and nobler fields of human endeavor.

Scotland.

"THE LAND O' CAKES."

HAS it ever occurred to you that it is not the biggest places on the map that have given the world the largest number of great men? When you think of Scotland, you will wonder about this, because Scotland is but a small part of the little island which forms the kingdom of Great Britain, and her people have done very marvelous things for the world.

Once Scotland was a kingdom in itself and her people were very proud and were great fighters. At first the country was called Caledonia, and parts of it were wild and inaccessible. If you take a little journey into Scotland, even today, you will be impressed by the wildness and bleakness of much of the country. Two wild tribes inhabited the Highlands—the Scots, who came from Ireland, and the Picts, or "painted men." The Scots were the stronger, and gradually conquered the whole country, which came to be known as Scotland, and Kenneth McAlpine became king. A number of kings followed him, while the country kept on struggling and growing, and then came Malcolm Canmore. His history is told in the story of Edinburgh. Then followed many brave people whose lives were the life of Scotland; among them William Wallace, Robert Bruce, and the lovely Mary, Queen of the Scots.

In speaking of Scotland we speak sometimes of the Highlands and the Lowlands. The Highlands are in the northern part of the country, which is wild and mountainous and full of lakes. The sea has cut into it and there are many islands along its coast, and many swift-running rivers. The scenery is very beautiful. Not many people live in the Highlands because the land is rocky and difficult to cultivate, and it is chiefly used for the pasturage of sheep and for deer forests and grouse moors.

The Highlanders are taught English in the schools, but nevertheless they speak among themselves their ancient language, the Gælic. They wear, too, the picturesque kilted dress which we have all seen, at least in pictures.

Once the people of the Highlands were divided into "clans," each clan being like one great family, such as the Macdonalds, the Macgregors and the Campbells, and each clan wore its own kind of plaid dress. They were constantly fighting with each other, but in the face of a common foe they fought together.

There are many beautiful lakes in the north of Scotland. Loch Lomond, near Glasgow, is the biggest fresh-water lake. It is thirty-five miles long and is studded with lovely islands. At its head is the famous mountain, Ben Lomond. In a part of the country called the Trossachs, is Loch Katrine, of which Sir Walter Scott wrote in *The Lady of the Lake.* And then there is Loch Leven, where Queen Mary was once imprisoned on an island in the middle of the Loch, and from which she made a romantic escape.

Scotland's rivers are famous, too. There is the Tay, running past the old town of Perth, and the Dee and the Don encircling Aberdeen; there is the Tweed, forming part of the boundary line between England and Scotland; best-known of all is the Clyde, with its great shipyards.

We have spoken of Scotland's famous men. Best-loved of boys and girls is Sir Walter Scott. Visitors to the "land o' cakes" never leave until they have seen his home at Abbotsford. It is a rambling old red sandstone mansion, set in the midst of great old trees which Sir Walter himself planted nearly a hundred years ago. The library and the study, which are shown to visitors, have remained untouched since his death.

Two miles away is Melrose Abbey, the most noted ruin in Scotland. The Abbey was built in the fourteenth century upon the site of a previous one erected

FINGAL'S CAVE, SCOTLAND.—A magnificent cavern in an island off the coast, 212 feet in length and nearly 100 feet in height, which may be entered in calm weather.

by David I. Close by the place where once stood the high altar is a mound underneath which is buried the heart of Robert Bruce.

Some hours' journey from Melrose are the ruins of Dryburgh Abbey, and in this lovely, peaceful spot Sir Walter Scott is buried. No more fitting resting-place could have been found for him than this romantic corner of his own well-loved country.

SOME SCOTTISH CITIES.

Perth was once the capital of Scotland and near by is Scone palace, where the Scottish kings were crowned. It is at the head of the navigation of the river Tay, and is famous for having been one of the battle-grounds during the long struggle between the Highlanders and the Lowlanders.

Twenty miles away is Dundee, a busy town, the third largest city in Scotland. It is a manufacturing town, having many mills making vast quantities of rope, and thousands and thousands of bags. It is opposite the Baltic Sea, and imports hemp, flax and jute. Some parts of Dundee are strongly scented with the latter material, and other parts are full of the fragrance of fruits, for here is made much fine jam and marmalade which is sold all over the world. Its linen trade is the largest in Great Britain. Dundee is not a romantic town, but it is a thriving one, with a fine harbor and splendid docks. Its population is 160,871.

Two hours' journey from Dundee is Aberdeen. It is called the "Granite City," being built and paved almost entirely in gray granite. This is because it is situated near hundreds of quarries from which granite is shipped to all parts of the British Isles. It received its charter in 1179. It had grown to considerable importance in the 17th century, but suffered much in the Civil Wars. It is a handsome city, with many fine public buildings, a splendid university and flourishing manufactures. Aberdeen does a thriv-

ing export trade in woolens, linens, cotton yarns, paper, combs, granite, cattle, grain, preserved food, and fish. In the days when ships were built of wood, shipbuilding was a prosperous industry in Aberdeen, her clippers being famous for their fleetness; but now that vessels are built of iron and steel, the industry has died, the city being remote from the necessary coal and iron. The population of Aberdeen is 153,108.

Although Edinburgh is the capital of Scotland, Glasgow is a much larger city; it is the second largest city in Great Britain, London, of course, being first. It is by far the busiest city in Scotland, being the only large shipping center on the west coast of that country. Glasgow is situated on the Clyde. Once the Clyde was inaccessible to large ships; they could not sail up it to Glasgow. Her citizens, therefore, at vast expense, had the river widened and deepened; and they have been well repaid, for now great vessels from all over the world land at her wharves, bringing to her much prosperity.

There are large shipyards on the Clyde, and always one may see many great ships being built there; in fact, there is more shipbuilding on the Clyde than anywhere else in the world. Visitors to Glasgow usually take a sail upon the river to enjoy seeing those fine vessels grow under the hands of busy workmen. We have seen that Aberdeen lost her shipbuilding industry when vessels came to be constructed of other material than wood, because she had no iron and coal. Glasgow is in the midst of rich coal and iron fields, and this, of course, has helped to make her so prosperous. For that reason there are many factories in the neighborhood of Glasgow. The population of the city is 735,906.

Glasgow has a fine old cathedral and a celebrated university, one of the five which have made Scotland's name honored all over the world.

Scotland has an area of 30,405 square miles, and her population today is about five million. The land is

full of romantic ruins and castles, of beautiful rivers and lakes and mountains. Her history is a wonderful story of brave men and women. Scotland's greatness lies in the strength of her people. They are serious, earnest, tremendously hard-working, and they love their country. They are frugal, and have a passion for acquiring knowledge. They have settled in all parts of the world, and every country to which they have gone has benefited thereby.

South America.

SOUTH AMERICA, the other grand division of the Western Continent, with a total area of 6,837,000 square miles, contains the highest land in the Western Hemisphere, the highest navigable lake in the world (Lake Titicaca, between Bolivia and Peru), and the Amazon, largest of all rivers. Along its western course, all the way from Panama to Cape Horn at the southern extremity, runs the immense wall of the Andes Mountains, and along the eastern side of the continent extend other ranges, thus forming a frame of mountains around almost the whole continent.

Within this frame the land is a great plateau; three wide valleys divide it into three main parts, and the rivers flowing from these valleys find an outlet through three great gaps in the mountain-wall—two to the northeast and one to the southeast. The average height of the Andes is from 8,000 to 12,000 feet, rising abruptly from low land; these heights are capped by parallel ranges called Cordilleras, among which are tremendous peaks rising to a height of 20,000 feet, Mount Aconcagua attaining the amazing altitude of 23,000 feet. Between these wonderful peaks are many level tracts and valleys varying in their height above sea-level from 6,000 to 10,000 feet.

The great Amazon river crosses almost the whole breadth of the continent; other large rivers are the Orinoco and the La Plata, with its two important tributaries, the Parana and the Uruguay rivers.

The population of this continent is estimated at about 36,500,000. Before the arrival of Europeans (in 1500), South America was peopled only by a vast number of Indians, some of them powerful nations, others small farming communities, and still others poor wandering tribes. No exact census of the continent ever has been made, but it is thought that of the rough estimate of population just mentioned not more than 500,000 are Indians.

Columbus was the first white man to discover the South American coast, in 1498. Later explorers were De Ojedo, Pinzon, Diego de Lope, and the Portuguese navigator Cabral, of whose discovery of the coast we have written in the article on Brazil. Of the immense area of the continent, nearly half is included in Brazil alone, and almost a sixth in the Argentine Republic, Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego. The remainder of the area is divided into eight republics: Bolivia, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, Venezuela, and the three northern colonies of French, Dutch, and British Guiana.

There is as great variety of climate in South America as in the northern part of the hemisphere. The greater part lies in the tropics, and the widest part is under the equator, but the Andes include every variety of climate, from the hot, dry regions of the Pacific coast and the steaming plains of the Amazon to the cold valleys and table lands among the ranges and the enormously high peaks covered with perpetual snow. Through the great gaps in the wall of mountains on the east, the fresh winds from the Atlantic Ocean rush in and cool the whole continent. On some of the high plateaus among the Andes the climate is called the most delightful in the world—never hot,

never cold, and with sufficient rain for all purposes. But in the eastern part of Brazil sometimes no rain falls for two or three years, making desolate great tracts of land. In the southern part of the continent, beyond the tropic line and extending through Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego, winter weather prevails from May to October, a large part of this territory being covered with snow most of the time

In plant and animal life South America possesses many species different from any found in North America. Among the plants may be mentioned the Para rubber tree, found along the Amazon and Orinoco rivers, from which the very best quality of rubber is obtained; the magnificent Brazil-nut tree; the cinchona tree, which supplies the world with Peruvian bark or quinine; rosewood, largely exported for the making of furniture, and splendid palms. In these tropical forests immense vines trail over the trees, and the branches are loaded with delicate air-plants and drooping festoons of moss. Here is the home of the most gorgeous parrots and strange birds of wonderfully brilliant plumage, also of the condor, the largest bird that flies, only a little smaller than an ostrich.

Through the woodlands rove some interesting creatures peculiar to the country: the armadillo, looking like somebody's fancy basket walking along by itself; the fierce jaguar and puma, belonging to the big cat family; the ant-eater, the sloth, and the curious llama found among the Andes, which is remarkable for its relationship to the camel, and because it had been a domestic animal from the earliest times. Many kinds of monkeys also live in these forests.

In South American waters a tremendous water-boa exists, thirty feet or more in length, and able to swallow a horse. But the ordinary boa-constrictor, far from being considered dangerous, is often kept about the house to kill rats and mice. Most of us would prefer the rodents to the boas.

The shores and rivers swarm with fish, eatable and otherwise; there are many alligators, and cannibal fish, which kill and eat men, and the strange electric eel, which is sometimes six feet long and which has the power of emitting, from the permanent electric battery with which its interior is fitted out, shocks of electricity strong enough to overcome men or horses.

The principal products from the soil are wheat in Chile and in the Argentine Republic, coffee in Brazil and Guiana, chocolate along the Amazon and the Orinoco, and in Ecuador, Colombia, and Venezuela; while the whole tropical region produces corn, fruits, and vegetables in luxuriant abundance.

We of North America are apt to consider the word "American" as descriptive only of the people living between Maine and California, Canada and the Gulf of Mexico, and it gives most Northerners visiting South America a surprise after they have crossed the Isthmus of Panama to find that the people below the dividing-point call themselves "Americans" and are particular to allude to their visitors as "North Americans." A Chilean, hearing some one struggling to express himself in a mingling of Spanish and English, will inquire politely whether the señor is an Englishman or a North American.

Most of us never have known much about the "Other Americans"—their cities, their ambitions, achievements, and conditions. The common idea of South American countries has been that they are all much alike—the abodes of fever and revolutions. But each country is different in many ways from the others. In the matter of climate alone, one may find in Bolivia, far above sea-level, a raging snow-storm on the Fourth of July, while at the same time intense heat is wilting the people on the eastern coast, in Brazil.

One thing that makes the great difference between the two Americas is the different ways in which they were settled by white men. North America was

sought by men of English blood who came to the New World seeking liberty; South America was invaded by mere adventurers, of Spanish or Portuguese blood, who were only looking for gold. The English cleared land, planted fields, established homes, and built up a stable government; the Spanish and Portuguese cared only to exploit the new lands. The civilization of the remarkable Incas of Peru, for example, was destroyed, and this industrious, rich, and clever people was almost wiped out of existence by the greedy and cruel adventurers.

Colombia, which once was the United States of Colombia, including Venezuela, Ecuador, and New Granada, has been, since 1885, a single state divided into departments, with governors appointed by the President of the Republic. Many revolutions since 1885 have kept Colombia in a disturbed state and prevented her progress. The capital, Bogota, is 9,000 feet above sea-level, and has about 120,000 inhabitants. The country has great mineral wealth; $300,000,000 of gold was mined from it while it belonged to Spain. In 1819 the people of Colombia, along with those of the other Spanish possessions in South America, joined in a general uprising, which had been threatening for several years, and freed themselves from Spanish rule forever. Colombia now produces about $4,000,000 worth of gold and silver every year. Many cattle are raised, and coffee and rubber are important products. The country has more than four hundred miles of railway.

Ecuador, which separated from Colombia in 1830, has also been disturbed by frequent revolutions. It is about the size of Norway, and its inhabitants (about 1,000,000) are mostly of Indian or mixed blood. One third of the world's supply of chocolate comes originally from Ecuador; about 55,000,000 pounds are exported every year from Guayaquil, its principal seaport town. Coffee, rubber, and Peruvian bark are also

exported, and the famous "Panama" hats are made much more extensively in Ecuador than in Panama. Ecuador is for foreigners a very unhealthful place. There is always fever to be feared, and the best way to see it is from the deck of a steamer. Its capital, Quito, is an ancient town, where the unhappy Inca, Atahualpa, used to eat off gold plates in a palace that rivaled King Solomon's, before he and most of his people were harried out of existence by the Spanish. More particulars of the Incas will be found in the story of Peru.

Bolivia, named in honor of Simon Bolivar, the liberator of the northern part of South America from the tyranny of Spain, gained its independence in 1825. Years later, in a war with Chile (1879), it lost its seacoast and it is now entirely landlocked. Trade with the outside world is carried on through Chilean ports. Most of the cities are on the high western plateau, which at the ancient town of Potosi rises to 14,000 feet. La Paz, the capital, is situated at a height of 12,000 feet. Of the 2,000,000 of population, only about one-fifth are white, the rest being Indians and half-castes.

The Argentine Republic is the fourth wheat-producing country in the world. Brazil is the first among coffee-growing countries, and Chile has the largest known beds of nitrate. More details of interest will be found in the separate articles on these republics.

Paraguay was originally part of the Spanish viceroyalty of Peru, later under the jurisdiction of Buenos Ayres, but it declared itself independent in 1811. After a time the government was seized by dictators and held by them until a great war broke out between Dictator Lopez, who was half crazed with wild ambitions, and Brazil, Argentine, and Uruguay, in which Lopez was killed, in 1870. The country was exhausted, and only began to recover at the close of the nineteenth century. The capital of Paraguay is Asuncion, which

has direct communication with Europe by a line of steamers from France. Cattle are raised in great numbers on the plains, and a good deal of fine timber is exported.

Uruguay also was part of a Spanish vice-ropalty, and later a province of Brazil, but became independent in 1828. Frequent revolutions have checked its progress since that time. Montevideo, the capital, is a stirring city, with a university having faculties of law and medicine; there are also a State school of arts and trades, a military college, and normal schools. The main industries outside of the towns are cattle and sheep-raising and the growing of grain, Montevideo is visited by steamers of many European countries.

Venezuela was discovered by Columbus in 1498. It was in Caracas, the capital, in 1810, that the revolutionary movement began which finally freed the whole northern part of South America from Spain. Independence was proclaimed in the following year, but for ten years more there was continued warfare until the Spanish power was destroyed. The Republic of Venezuela was formed in 1830 by the secession from the other members of the Republic of Colombia. Since 1830 no fewer than fifty revolutionary movements have swept the country, eleven of which overturned the government of the day. Venezuela is divided into three zones—the agricultural, near the coast, which produces sugar-cane, coffee, and cocoa; the cattle country, along the Orinoco; the forests, which produce rubber and timber. There are about 540 miles of railway, and 11,000 miles of navigable water in the Orinoco; but travel in the interior is mostly carried on by pack-mules over bad roads.

Guiana (originally the name of an Indian tribe), on the northern coast of South America, is divided into three parts—British, Dutch, and French Guiana. British Guiana covers an area of about 110,000 square

miles and is separated from Dutch Guiana by the Corentyn river. It has a population of 289,000, largely East Indian laborers and negroes, with a few native Indians. It is a colony of Great Britain, with a governor living at Georgetown, the capital. Sugar-planting is the most important industry, though considerable gold has been mined there.

Dutch Guiana lies east of British Guiana, and is separated from French Guiana on the east by the Maroni river. It has an area of 46,000 square miles, with a population of about 70,000, including negroes and a few Indians. It belongs to Holland and has a Dutch crown-governor, living at Paramaribo, the capital. Agriculture is almost the only industry, and sugar is the chief product. The territory was first settled by the English, but in 1667 it was given to the Dutch in exchange for the New Netherlands (New York City) when the English usurped that settlement—not quite a fair equivalent.

French Guiana (often called Cayenne) lies between Dutch Guiana and the Atlantic Ocean. It has an area of 47,000 square miles, and has a population of 30,000, not counting some tribes of wild Indians. It is held by France as a convict colony under the rule of a French governor, who lives at Cayenne, the capital. The climate is very unhealthful. Little is raised here, the chief product being sugar. During the French Revolution about six hundred royalists were sent here in exile, and about two-thirds of them died from the effects of the climate.

The people of the South American republics have much to contend with in trying to bring their country up to the standard of the world's progress. Many things have combined to hold them back, such as the mistakes of their forefathers, the inherited Spanish pride and inflammable temper, the trying climate, and troubles with great hordes of uncivilized Indians. Yet their ancestors, too, fought for their independence,

and they, too, are pioneers. Half the Western hemisphere—that vast, half-awakened southern continent—is theirs, to train and to cultivate, and in it to build a future home for the races of southern Europe, and to work out their own problems in republican self-government.

Spain.

IN the long-distant past, about 1,100 years before the birth of Christ, the sunny peninsula that we know as Spain was first populated along its coasts on the Bay of Biscay, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Mediterranean Sea, by Phœnicians, Greeks, and Carthaginians. In eight hundred years Carthage had conquered about half the peninsula, which then fell into the hands of the Romans after their destruction of Carthage; and twenty years before the dawn of the Christian era Rome commanded the whole country. Three hundred years after the birth of Christ, the all-pervading Goths seized the land, but they were driven out two centuries later by the Moors, who were of Arabian blood, and who held the peninsula for three hundred years more. Several small kingdoms were established throughout the land; but, when Ferdinand V of Aragon and Isabella of Castile were married, in 1479, these kingdoms became united, and Spain began her great and romantic career of prosperity. The expulsion of the Moors, and the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus, an Italian, through the generosity of Queen Isabella, gave to Spain a national form and character, the occupation of large portions of North, Central, and South America, following the discovery, soon raising the new kingdom to the front rank of European nations, in wealth and power.

In the fourteenth century, through the marriage of

Isabella's daughter Joanna with Philip I, son of the Emperor Maximilian of Germany, Spain came to be a part of the Hapsburg empire—with Germany, the Netherlands, Milan and Naples in Italy, Sicily and Sardinia, with Burgundy and the colonies—under Charles the First of Spain and Fifth of Germany. The tyranny of Charles was followed by an even worse tyranny from Philip II, a gloomy fanatic, who, with the aid of the fearful Inquisition, tried to destroy all his subjects that did not share his religious belief; and the policy of this monarch, followed by his no less tyrannical successors, finally brought to a close, before the eighteenth century, the splendid career of Spain, which had begun so brilliantly with Ferdinand and Isabella.

The princes of Hapsburg ceased to reign in 1700. After that came a long period of wars over the royal succession, which resulted in placing a prince of the House of Bourbon on the throne; and, except for two short intervals, this House has held the Spanish throne ever since. The first interruption was from 1808 to 1814, during which time Joseph Bonaparte held sway, having been placed on the throne by that crafty king-maker, his brother Napoleon. This marked the beginning of the Peninsular war, when all Europe began to fear the increasing power of the brilliant adventurer from Corsica. The Spaniards never ceased to resent the French intrusion; and at last, with the aid of the great English soldier, afterward the Duke of Wellington, they succeeded in driving out the usurpers.

The second interruption of the Bourbon rule lasted from 1868 to 1874, during which first a regency, then a short-lived monarchy, under Amadeus I, and a republic, were successively proclaimed. At last the Bourbons returned to the throne in the person of Alfonso XII, who was succeeded by his son Alfonso XIII in 1885.

COLONIES.

This great nation once had many colonial possessions in the Western Hemisphere, from which were borne back to her untold treasures in gold and silver; but, through the short-sighted folly and cruelty of her rulers, she lost them one after another, the last of these, Cuba, being taken from her by the United States after the Spanish-American War in 1898, and given her independence.

Spain with her forty-nine provinces has a population of 18,000,000, and the country proper covers an area of 197,670 square miles. She controls a few comparatively small colonial possessions on the northern and western coasts of Africa, besides the Caroline and Marianne Islands in the Pacific. Her mineral wealth has been famous from ancient times; the rich gold product of her mountains made her the California of the Carthaginians and the Romans. The gold is gone, but Spain still mines more minerals than any other country in Europe. The most noted of these mountains are the Pyrenees, separating Spain from France on the north.

PEOPLE AND PRODUCTIONS.

The delightful temperature in the greater part of Spain makes it rich in fruits and grains; olives and grapes are largely cultivated, but the chief products exported are wines of the finest quality, and great quantities of cork.

Notwithstanding their harsh masters, the Spaniards have always been a gay, light-hearted people, domestic, affectionate, delighting in merrymaking, seizing upon the slightest excuse for a holiday or a festival. Rich or poor, aristocrat or peasant, all love the festivals that take the whole family on a jaunt.

The peasants live in little cottages or huts, usually far from clean, except in Andalusia; but these humble homes are the abode of much careless, childlike gayety,

enjoyment of sunshine, flowers, and an abundance of fruits and cereals, acquired with little toil. Music, the dance, gossip, love-making form the chief pleasures of these contented people.

The nobility and the well-to-do middle class live in mansions on their estates or in some large town. Many of the Spanish dwellings are constructed in the attractive style common in the Orient, with a central court round which the house is built, the court having a fountain, trees, flowers, hammocks, chairs, and awnings, making a charming out-of-door sitting-room.

A curious modern innovation for a country so notoriously behind-hand in the progress of the world is the electric light. Until a few years ago the Spanish still clung to candles and to antiquated olive-oil lamps; they were too slow and suspicious to use the gas that was so long ago adopted by other countries; but somehow they have been induced to try electricity, which is now so popular that many of the smallest towns and humblest houses are thus lighted.

The several provinces show very different types of people. In the northwest the Basques pique themselves on being the oldest race in the country, and all assume to be noblemen, no matter how poor. Although haughty toward the people of other provinces, the Basques are hospitable to foreigners, and have many customs and amusements of their own, besides a special costume, and even a distinctive language. The women are very handsome, the children beautiful enough for artists' models; while the men set off their dark eyes and complexions with velvet suits, red or blue sashes, and gay silk scarfs bound round the head beneath a jaunty cap.

The people of the old kingdom of Aragon are stately and serious, in strong contrast to most of their lively countrymen, although they too wear costumes suggestive of light opera. Among all classes prevails a high and somewhat exaggerated courtesy, plainly

A Group of Peasantry of the Province of Leon, Spain, Wearing typical Costumes.

derived from the country's former occupation by Orientals. When you enter a Spaniard's dwelling, be it mansion or hovel, he assures you that the house and all it contains belong to you; but he would think you an unmannerly boor should you take him at his word and lay claim to the least of his possessions. The Spanish temper is proverbially hasty; it is a word and a blow with all; but the storm passes quickly, and belligerents will soon make friends again. A very formal etiquette prevails at court and among the upper classes, and in no country outside of the Orient are girls and women, above the peasant class, so closely guarded and continually watched.

Southern Spain was the stronghold of the Moors for seven centuries, and the magnificent buildings and peculiar architecture of the Arabs bear testimony to their intelligence and their exquisite taste in the art of decoration.

CITIES OF SPAIN.

Seville is one of the gayest of Spanish cities; the great orangeries and vineyards near it, and its large tobacco industry, support thousands of work-people. Here is one of the two most famous arenas for bull-fights, the other being at Madrid. The bull-fights usually take place on Sunday; everyone that has the price of a ticket joins the eager throng that attends, all dressed in their best to honor (as they say) the sport which, to almost all other eyes than those of the Spaniard, seems a shocking relic of barbarism.

The throng passes within the entrance to the vast arena to their seats rising tier on tier. The president of the national sport gives a signal, and the procession of performers enters the ring; first the escorts, then the "star" bull-fighter and a crowd of assistants, all gayly clad; then come the horses that are to drag the bodies of the dead bulls out of the ring; and finally the poor beast itself dashes into the arena; the terrible so-called sport begins, in which always the animal is

killed, after cruel torture, and very often some of his tormentors meet the same fate in their encounters with the infuriated victim of their barbarity.

Almost in the center of Spain lies her capital, Madrid—a thoroughly modern city, with all the latest improvements and attractions, but with no characteristics distinctively its own, save one—the Royal Picture-Gallery, which has one of the first collections in the world, composed of several collections made by royalty, of which each painting is a masterpiece. Here we see some of the finest creations of Spain's two great artists, Velasquez and Murillo; and there is hardly a world-famous artist that is not represented by some masterpiece in this celebrated gallery.

About twenty miles south of Madrid lies one of the oldest cities in Spain—Toledo, built on a circle of seven hills, enclosed on three sides by the curving river Tagus, while on the fourth side it is defended by two walls, one built by the Goths in the seventh century, the other by Alfonso VI in the tenth. It has been said that Toledo is the most remarkable city in Spain, for one will find there "three strata of glories—Gothic, Arabic, and Castilian—and an upper crust of beggars and silence." The Moors occupied it more than three hundred years, and left evidence of their sway in their exquisite architecture. If Toledo had been built for a "show" city, it could not be finer in effect, standing majestically on its hills, with long lines of palaces and churches rising in terraces round its rocky slopes. It is now a lonely city, when we compare its present population of 20,000 with the 200,000 souls it once contained. The city is one vast museum of palaces and churches; chief among the latter is the great Cathedral, the Primate Church of Spain, and one of the most magnificent in the world. Within, it is a grand and shadowy temple grove of marble, with a light of unearthly softness and purity.

The once flourishing industries of Toledo have died

out, the only notable branches in operation now being the manufacture of the famous Toledo blades and confectionery.

NOTED BUILDINGS—THE ESCORIAL.

About an hour and a half by rail from Madrid are the two adjacent villages of El Escorial, so called from the iron scoriæ (refuse of iron mines) which abound there. The name El Escorial has been given to the neighboring royal residence built by that morbid monarch Philip II, who loved solitude and bleakness. He built his capital at Madrid because it was the dreariest spot in Spain, and built his palace out of sight of the city on a bare hillside, swept by winds in winter, parched by the sun in summer, and barren at all seasons.

The edifice is built as a parallelogram, measuring 740 by 550 feet, and was constructed in the form of a gridiron, as a cheerful reminder of the martyrdom of St. Lawrence. The gloomy walls are pierced by 11,000 windows looking outward, and 1,578 looking upon the inner courts. The building is of gray granite, sixty feet high, and four towers, each 200 feet high, stand at the four corners. These walls contain a royal palace, a church, a monastery with 200 cells, two colleges, three chapter-houses, three libraries, five great halls, six dormitories, three hospital halls, nine refectories, countless apartments for attendants, and eighty staircases.

To the right of the high altar in the church is a remarkable reliquary. Philip II had a passion for the bones of saints, and he collected 7,000 relics of this sort; skeletons, teeth, shin-bones, toe-nails, skulls—the smallest bony contribution was thankfully accepted by this extraordinary man.

Under the high altar is the mausoleum of the Spanish kings, wherein repose all her sovereigns, from the time of Charles V to the present.

THE ALHAMBRA.

To leave this gloomy spot and set out for Granada is a relief. In a suburb of the city of Granada stands the world-famed palace and citadel (or fortified enclosure) called the Alhambra, built in the eleventh and twelfth centuries by the Moorish kings. The towers of the citadel are much older than the main structure, for they were standing in the year 864, and centuries later were connected with the Moorish fortress. The building covers a length of almost 3,000 feet, and is more than 700 feet wide; the walls are about thirty feet high, encircling the summit of a hill. Within the walls are interesting Moorish monuments, but the chief attraction is the palace of Alhambra (which word has no more romantic meaning than simply "the house"). Its outward appearance is not imposing; within it many alterations have been made and restorations effected; explosions in a neighboring powder-factory have injured it somewhat, and time has made its mark upon it; but it is still rich in treasures of beauty.

The Court of Myrtles has a little lake in its centre, bordered with myrtle and orange trees; and the most perfect specimens of Moorish art in the form of delicate colonnades, and arcaded galleries, with lace-like carving and graceful arches, are on every side.

From this court one enters the Court of the Lions, surrounded by a low gallery supported by 124 white marble columns. Exquisite little pavilions adorn each end of the oblong court, and in the centre stands an alabaster fountain supported by twelve white marble animals supposed to be lions, but bearing little resemblance to any creatures ever seen by man.

We admire luxurious chambers and baths, and then enter the magnificent Hall of the Ambassadors, which was the grand reception-room of the Moorish potentates who took their pleasure so picturesquely within these walls. And this room, so rich in carving, color, and gold, witnessed the beginning of the downfall of

the Moors in Spain; for here was held a great council, when the Arab princes decided that it was useless to offer further resistance to the Christian power. The citadel capitulated in 1491, and in the great year 1492—the same year in which Columbus made for Spain the greatest discovery ever made—King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella entered the Alhambra in triumph; the Moors were banished forever, and Christianity once more ruled the land.

Sweden.

SOME of the most fascinating stories ever told have sprung from the early mythical history of Sweden; and her colossal gods and goddesses, beautiful and terrible, figure in the fairy tales of many lands.

The Goths, who changed the world's history by the part they played in the downfall of the Roman Empire and the reconstruction of Europe that followed, came originally from the southern end of the Scandinavian Peninsula, designated as Gotland or Gothland on modern maps. But the authentic history of this whole land is not recorded until the year 1000, when its king, Olaf, became a Christian. The people, however, did not accept Christianity until more than a century later, when Goths and Swedes had become friendly.

Sweden's early history reached a climax in 1389, when Margaret, the masterful Queen of Denmark and Norway, made the Swedish king, Albert, a prisoner and annexed his kingdom to her own. The Swedish people never liked this union, and in 1523 a great leader, Gustavus Vasa, arose among them, who helped the people to throw off the Danish yoke and was chosen King of Sweden. His reign made the country one of the first powers of Europe. Later, his grand-

son, Gustavus Adolphus, one of the most gallant figures in all history, succeeded him; and he in turn was succeeded by his daughter Christina, who abdicated the throne in 1654, after which Sweden declined in power. More than a century and a half later, the reigning King of Sweden had no direct heir, and one of Napoleon's marshals, Bernadotte, was invited to become heir to the Swedish throne. He became King in 1818, and reigned twenty-six years, founding the present line of kings, under whom the progress of Sweden has been steady and peaceful. In 1905 Norway broke away from the union with Sweden, which had existed since 1814, and established her own monarchy; but this was accomplished without serious trouble between the two countries.

Sweden has few of the peculiar waterways or fjords of which Norway possesses so many, but she has quite as many glaciers in the north. The country is divided into three principal regions; Gothland, in the South, Sweden proper, in the middle, and Norland, in the North, comprising the remainder and by far the larger part. Its whole area is 172,876 square miles, and it has a population of a little more than 5,000,000.

Gothenburg on the southwestern coast was once famous as one of Sweden's great fishing-places, but its chief importance now is as the western terminus of the wonderful Gotha Canal, which extends for three hundred miles to the Baltic Sea. The town has long, broad streets, with canals running alongside of the walks for great distances. The houses are curiously ugly, but there are several fine parks. This is one of the towns that consume so much of Sweden's vast product of white pine lumber in the manufacture of safety matches.

Comfortable steamers go up the Gotha river and into the canal, passing round the beautiful cascade of Trollhatten and into Lake Wener by means of great locks. They cross this lake, and, rising by other locks,

take their passengers three hundred feet above sea-level, on the highest point between Lakes Wener and Wetter. Then the canal gradually descends by the same system, until the steamer finally sails triumphantly out into the Baltic Sea and makes its way into the port of Stockholm, Sweden's capital, sometimes called the "Venice of the North," from its many canals and surrounding waters. West of the city is the romantic Malar Lake, with its castles and hundreds of islands, and the countless historic and legendary spots on its shores. Here are memories of the hero-god Odin; of the first Christian missionaries who came among the Northern pagans; of the fierce Vikings, who sailed from this port to conquer other peoples.

Close to the city, with its towers and palaces, stand portions of forest, and huge rocks are allowed to rest in all sorts of places. The central island, Staden, is an eminence covered with houses on terraces, the royal palace crowning the summit. Fine harbors, on the Lake Malar side, and also on an arm of the Baltic Sea on the south, accommodate much traffic.

The royal palace is the finest building in Sweden, of Italian style in architecture. Each outer side is different, yet all are equally beautiful. The palace contains more than five hundred rooms, superb with marble columns and sculpture. In the audience-room is a throne of solid silver, presented to the lively young Queen Christina, who resigned her crown rather than endure the stiff etiquette and lack of liberty entailed by her high station. Among the state apartments is the celebrated White Sea room, resplendent with snowy marble, silver, and crystal.

The National Library contains choice treasures of the wonderful old Scandinavian literature; and the National Museum displays everything that illustrates Swedish life from prehistoric times to the present, including relics of the Church and of royalty. Among the latter curiosities are Gustavus Vasa's cane and a

tiny toy gun with which the eccentric Christina used to amuse herself by shooting fleas!

On the Riddarholm Island stands the church where the gallant Gustavus Adolphus was laid to rest, after his last battle at Lutzen. Here, too, was buried the famous fighter, Charles XII; and in the town of Upsala, not many miles away, the remains of Gustavus Vasa, the great liberator of Sweden from the hated yoke of Denmark, lie in a noble cathedral.

The Riksdagshus, or Assembly Hall of the Swedish Chambers, also stands on Riddarholm Island. Its walls are covered with metal plates displaying the coats-of-arms of three thousand Swedish nobles. Here Gustavus Adolphus made his parting address to his subjects before setting forth on the career of glory that ended at Lutzen. Here the fiery Charles XII, half insane with love of conquest, harangued his nobles.

With gardens and parks Stockholm is well supplied. The stately royal summer palace is on Drottningholm, a beautiful island.

Stockholm's streets are wide, clean, and handsome, in which respects most of the other Swedish towns resemble it. The houses are as quaint as in the sister country, Norway, with steep roofs dotted with many high-shouldered dormer windows. There are many schools of all grades, for the Swedes are a highly intelligent and ambitious people. In the farming regions there is sometimes hardly profit enough to be made from the land to satisfy the desires and ambitions of the landowners, for, according to law, when a man dies his property must be shared equally among his heirs; so his farm is divided into portions, one for each child. This rule sometimes reduces a farm to a number of very small tracts, hardly worth cultivating. Hence, many thousands of Swedes of the peasant class have emigrated to the United States in the past thirty years.

In no part of Europe do peasant women work so hard or at such unwomanly toil as in Sweden. In Denmark and in North Germany gangs of Swedish women are hired to do the most masculine work. Not even women in an English colliery district, the women filling blast-furnaces and tending coke-ovens in France, or those doing what should be done only by beasts of burden along the rivers of Hungary, are so bent to toil as are the women of Sweden. They are employed as hod-carriers and laborers; they sweep the streets, cart the rubbish, attend to the parks, and row the numberless ferry-boats, and all the dairy business of the cities is in their hands. On the farms they work as hard as the men, and share the chilly operation of dredging the lakes for the iron ore found in the mud. In the fishing towns, where salmon and the numerous other fine food fish for which Sweden is celebrated are caught and packed for exporting, the women share with the men the hardest toil and exposure to the weather.

Switzerland.

THE little country in the southwestern part of Europe known as Switzerland, and sometimes called "the playground of Europe," from the numbers of tourists who flock there every year to revel in its wonderful and majestic beauties, was first peopled by the Rhætians, from an ancient province of the Roman Empire. Later they were driven out by the Celtic people known as Helvetians (high-hill men); but, although Cæsar mentions them in his *Commentaries,* the country does not appear in history until the close of the thirteenth century, when it was first included in a map of Europe. But no Swiss Confederation (or republic) was formed until the seventeenth century. It was only one of the many Germanic

leagues which gradually became independent, and in time it obtained a large body of Italian and French allies, who joined with the league in making Switzerland the home of that indescribable yet strongly characteristic people we call "the Swiss." It is now a union of twenty-two cantons, each, like one of the United States, having its own constitution, the connecting link between them all being the Federal Council, the head of which is President of the Swiss Republic. The people of northern and eastern Switzerland are mostly German; nearest France they are mostly French, and on the southern side of the Alps are many Italians. As the Swiss have no language of their own, almost all the people learn two languages for convenience in dealing with their countrymen speaking different tongues. The schools are of very high grade; there are many universities, and most of the inhabitants are well educated.

Switzerland has only about twice as much land as the State of Massachusetts, and one third of it, among the vast, snow-covered mountains, is uninhabitable. Another third is covered with forests; but in these woodlands, in the beautiful valleys, and far up on some of the mountains is fertile soil, every acre of which is under cultivation, for the Swiss are noted farmers and make delicious cheese and butter, which are sent all over the world. Though it covers an area of less than 16,000 square miles, with but 3,315,443 inhabitants, and only about one-ninth of the whole region is fit for cultivation, it is one of the most important countries in all Europe. Its importance lies in its tremendous snow-topped mountains, with their great glaciers, where are formed the beginnings of some of the great rivers that irrigate and fertilize Europe. The beautiful Rhine of Germany begins as a little brook on one slope of Mount Saint Gothard; not many miles away on the same mountain is the immense glacier from which flows the Rhône; and in

One of a Mountain-climbing party on the Little Mithen, Switzerland.

this region rises the Ticino, which flows into the Po, the chief river in Italy. These rivers are dependent upon the Alps, and without them parts of Europe would become desert land. Besides these rivers and hundreds of glaciers—those great snow-rivers which were frozen centuries ago and which are freezing still, though slowly forcing their way through earth and rocks—Switzerland has some of the most beautiful lakes in the world, the most famous of which are Geneva and Lucerne. But the great attraction of Switzerland for tourists from all over the world are the Alps, those stupendous snowy ranges, with their towering peaks rising to meet the clouds. Saint Gothard near the center is the dividing mountain group of the several ranges.

Tourists usually take guides with them in climbing the Alps, and are tied in single file to ropes knotted about the waist, one guide leading the party and another following, all being provided with alpenstocks, stout poles with steel points at the end to aid in climbing the snowy or icy heights. There are deep gorges and great crevasses of ice, into which Alpine climbers sometimes fall and are never seen again.

There are many fine hotels among the Alps to accommodate the crowds of visitors, and good roads connect all the principal places. Railways have been built up some of the mountains, but many of them are impassable except on foot. The highest of all these snow-clad mountains is Mont Blanc, on the border between France and Switzerland. It rises 15,781 feet above sea-level and high above the romantic Valley of Chamouni, into which sixty-four of its glaciers drain. Its sister mountain is Monte Rosa, 15,217 feet high. The highest summit in the Northern Alps is the Jungfrau, 13,672 feet high.

There are about sixteen passes over the Alps. One of the most celebrated is the Great St. Bernard,

where live a community of monks, who train the huge St. Bernard dogs to go out among the mountains searching for any traveler that may have become disabled while climbing. These noble dogs have saved many lives. The Great St. Bernard Pass was crossed by Napoleon in 1800. The Little St. Bernard is the pass by which the daring Hannibal is supposed to have brought his legions and his elephants into Italy. The Saint Gothard Pass has a tunnel nine and a quarter miles in length, the longest in the world, directly connecting the railways of North Italy with those of Switzerland and Germany.

All the usual domestic animals are found in Switzerland, and among the Alps are the chamois. the ibex, wolves, bears, lynxes, and wildcats.

In the upper Alps, everyone works; cattle are reared and dairies flourish; in the warm valleys wine-making is a great industry and silk-worms are bred; linen, cotton, and woolen spinning are followed extensively, while Swiss watches are famous. Hotel-keeping is a great business, and thousands of Swiss make their living as guides among the mountains. The country is too small to support its own population from the product of the land alone. So almost all the farmers and their families have, besides farming, another occupation which brings in ready money. Each town or village has its own special product. In some carved wood toys and furniture are made; in others leather goods; and again another manufactures metal goods.

The Swiss of the cities and of the lowlands generally dress like other people of Europe, in French and English fashions, but in the mountains men and women, boys and girls, look to us as if they had just stepped out of the chorus of an opera.

In the old city of Geneva are made the celebrated watches that mark the flight of time in every land. The works are made in towns in the Jura mountains, but are put together in Geneva. More than three hun-

dred firms in the city are engaged in this business alone.

Geneva also produces music-boxes of all sizes and prices, and here most of the cuckoo-clocks are made that find their way to all parts of the world.

In the midst of the tall houses of this old city stands the Cathedral of St. Peter, in which the great Church reformer, John Calvin, used to preach. The building shows little change since his day; the chair he used to occupy stands in the same place.

Bern, the capital of this, the oldest republic in existence, is a quaint old-fashioned town, lying in the shadow of the Alps on both sides of the river Aar. It is very hilly, and one often sees houses that are built on the upper streets hanging over those on the lower ones. The President lives here in a substantial palace surrounded by gardens. The people of Bern keep enormous bears in a pit in the public gardens, in honor of the name of the city, which means "bear."

Lake Geneva is the largest and deepest of the Swiss lakes. On its north bank is Coppet, where once lived the celebrated Madame de Staël, in a house still standing.

Ouchy has a hotel in which the poets Byron and Shelley stayed when Byron wrote his famous poem, "The Prisoner of Chillon," the subject being the Castle of Chillon, rising from the waters of the lake, in which a priest named Francis Bonnivard was shut up for eight years by a tyrannical duke.

Lausanne is the capital of Vaud, the brightest, cleanest, and most progressive of all the cantons. It is picturesquely built on the edges and sides of a group of hills. The town has many fine schools. Here dwelt the historian Gibbon, while he wrote *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.*

Vevey is the center of the wine-growing district and is beautifully situated at the end of a valley. Once in fifteen years a grand festival is held in honor of the grape.

These are a few of the interesting towns on the shores of the celebrated lake beside whose waters have dwelt the most powerful thinkers of their time. Calvin, John Knox, Voltaire, Gibbon, Rousseau, Madame de Staël, Byron, John Kemble, with all their differences of station and of mental power, have united in one common worship of beauty in this land of Alp and lake.

Turkey.

ITS EXTENT AND GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.

TURKEY shares with Russia the distinction of being a country stretching over two continents, both lying partly in Europe and partly in Asia. But as Turkey holds also certain provinces in Africa, it enjoys the distinction of having large possessions in three continents—Europe, Asia, and Africa. Hence the Turkish Empire, like ancient Gaul, is divided into three parts: European Turkey, Asiatic Turkey, and African Turkey. All told, Turkey is not half as large in area as the United States, comprising 1,602,000 square miles. Most of it lies in Asia, for Turkish possessions in Europe have been greatly decreased owing to a continuous "trimming" by Russia and Austria. Indeed, it is an open secret that, were it not for much jealousy among the European powers, what little remains to Turkey north of the Bosporus, including Constantinople itself, would very speedily be taken from it. Thus the security of Turkey's European possessions seems to come from the well-matched forces of its enemies rather than from its own strength, suggesting the fable of the lamb guarded by jealous lions.

ITS PEOPLE AND ITS HISTORY.

The population of Turkey is composed of nearly equal numbers of Turks, Greeks, Albanians, and Slavs,

with smaller admixtures of Roumanians, Jews, Cherkesses, and others. Its entire population (about 38,000,000) is much less than half that of the United States, and of this three-quarters are in Asiatic Turkey. In the larger Turkish cities, such as Constantinople, the population is probably more cosmopolitan than anywhere else in the world, not excepting even London and New York. Nowhere else are so many tongues spoken and so many gods worshipped as in Constantinople, the metropolis of the Orient. Everywhere the Turks are in the minority, yet theirs is the government with all the civil rights of the Empire, Christians and Jews being little respected in Turkey by either law or custom.

Scientists class the Turks with the Turanian races of Asia, and we know that from Asia the Turks originally came. There seem to have been many branches of the Turkish race, which had broken up and scattered all over the world before histories came to be written. Some kind of Turks were heard of as early as the sixth century, in the reign of Emperor Justinian, in Rome. One branch (the Seljick Turks) were encountered by the Crusaders in the eleventh century in the Holy Land. Another it was (the Ottomans, a race of fine soldiers) that began, early in the fourteenth century, to found an empire in Western Asia Minor.

That was the beginning of the history of Turkey, a history so long and tedious that it can not be told here even briefly. There is just room enough to say that from the middle of the fourteenth century, when the Turks obtained a footing on the European side of the Mediterranean, spread rapidly over the Greek lands up into the Danube valley, and captured Constantinople (1453) from the last Roman Emperor of the East—from that time to this Turkey has always been very intimately connected with the general history of Europe. To this you must refer for a summary of Turkey's history.

ITS GOVERNMENT AND ITS INDUSTRIES.

Formerly Turkey was an absolute monarchy and the Sultan its absolute ruler, without constitutional limitations or congressional guidance—very much as was Russia with its Czar before the days of the Duma (the Russian parliament). Very recently, however, a radical change in Turkey's form of government seems to have occurred. In 1908 even Turkey had to adopt the more modern constitutional form of government. It did so without the consent of the Sultan, to be sure, who had always opposed the innovation that threatened his own power in the empire—exactly as King George did that other innovation known in the United States as the Declaration of Independence. But, fortunately for the Turkish people, the Young Turk Party—so the constitutionalists are called—was so well prepared for the great change that the Royalists were taken wholly by surprise and surrendered practically without resistance. You never heard of a "peaceful revolution" before? Well, this one in Turkey was just such a revolt, and in consequence of it, old, despotic Turkey is now a limited monarchy, somewhat after the manner of England or Germany. It has a cabinet of ministers to advise the new Sultan, and a parliament to enact laws, besides other safeguards of constitutional government. The new régime was inaugurated December 17, 1908.

Industrially Turkey is as yet very backward. The old government in several ways greatly discouraged industry. One of these was a law compelling every farmer to deliver one-tenth of all his produce to the Sultan. So strictly was this law enforced that, wherever crops were ripe for harvest, Turkish soldiers would be stationed to watch that nothing left the fields without deducting the Sultan's share. Whether on the field or the threshing-floor, the tax-gatherer was always exacting the Sultan's tenth of everything, and to evade his vigilance was considered criminal. But

Turkish Sailors.

besides the tax on crops, there were many heavy taxes levied on imports and exports. Most Turkish cities are walled about so completely that everybody and everything passing into them must come through certain gates, and there the tax-gatherer does the rest. This would seem to account partly for the great lack of industries and for the general poverty of a country having good soil, much mineral wealth, and other valuable resources. Evidently, where the Government takes a large share of everything raised, made or sold, men are not inclined to exert themselves.

Therefore the Turkish people are generally quite poor, and the houses in which the villagers live would seem to us only mud huts. Of course the towns, and larger cities especially, have houses more like our own. The principal products of Turkey are cotton, wheat, opium, perfumes, and rugs. The last form the chief industry of Turkish women, by whom all the weaving is done. In European Turkey farming and stock-raising are the chief occupations of the people.

ITS TOWNS AND TEMPLES.

Towns in Turkey are few, the people living mostly in villages. Throughout the empire there are not more than a dozen cities whose population exceeds 20,000, and most of the smaller ones do not number half as many inhabitants. Next in size to Constantinople, the great capital, come Saloniki, on the Ægean Sea, which has an excellent harbor and is rapidly becoming an important commercial port, and Adrianople, favorably situated at the intersection of two important thoroughfares—the road from Constantinople to Vienna and that from Bulgaria to the sea. In Asiatic Turkey, which contains the bulk of the population of the Empire, the two largest cities are Mecca and Jerusalem.

That the Turks are very religious is evident from the great number of temples they have—about 2,000 in

all, Constantinople alone having about 300 of them. All Mohammedans consider their churches (which they call "Mosques," by the way) so holy that no one is permitted to enter them in his street shoes. Not only must these be removed and left outside, but one's hands and face must be carefully washed before he is fit to pray to Mohammed. This is considered so essential that special fountains are placed for the purpose in the court of every mosque. As all faithful Mohammedans pray five times every day, they must spend a good deal of time at the washstands.

EDUCATION AND CUSTOMS.

The children in Turkey have no such schools as are provided for most children in this country. Indeed, they have hardly any special school-buildings and no professional teachers at all. Most of their schools are held in temples and most of their teachers are priests, schools being mostly connected with mosques in Turkey. Like Chinese school-children, Turkish boys and girls at school sit crosslegged on wide divans or lounges, or on the floor. School desks are a luxury in Turkish schools, and the children must support their books and papers as best they can while they study. They study the Koran, which is the Mohammedan's bible, very thoroughly, committing much of it to memory.

The Turks, like American Indians, are an extremely hospitable people. Strangers are everywhere invited to dinner and urged to stay overnight. Should one offer to pay for either meals or lodging, his host would be greatly offended thereby. The very poor in Turkey who find themselves hungry need only enter some more fortunate neighbor's house to have their hunger appeased. Actual beggars, however, are little known in the land of the Turks.

Two meals a day, one at ten in the morning and the other at sundown, fully satisfy the average Turkish

appetite, save for a possible cup of coffee on rising. Just as their schools have no desks, so their dining-rooms have no tables. Meals are served on very large trays, instead. On a mat, in the center of the tray, are placed all the hot dishes, about which are grouped the salts, peppers, pickles, etc. New trays usher in each additional course. Spoons are used for soup, but meat and other solids, served sliced, are eaten from the tips of one's fingers (the original forks) which the Turks use very adroitly. On being asked to explain this strange practice, a Turk once replied: "Everyone knows whether he has washed his fingers, but you never can tell who washes the knives and forks."

Perhaps the most remarkable thing about Turkey is its custom of secluding women. The women in Turkey are never permitted to mingle with men as they do here and elsewhere. They go about the streets so heavily veiled that even friends can not recognize each other. Stranger still, they must not be seen out of their private apartments even at home, lest some stranger happen along. For a Turkish woman to be seen unveiled by any strange man would be a terrible calamity, to avoid which, the harem, the special female quarters in the house, is commonly guarded against any possible male intruders. Indeed, no man in Turkey will enter the house of a friend abruptly, without shouting to warn the women of his approach, ("Woman, woman, betake yourself to your quarters!" is said to be the formula). Likewise, the women in the streets reciprocate by having their slave attendant, without whom no respectable woman goes about in Turkey, run ahead and direct all men to look the other way. Even husbands and wives do not eat at the same "tray," nor do they appear together at social entertainments. Turkish marriages are arranged very early by the parents of the bride and groom, who themselves not only have no choice or voice in the matter, but actually do not see each other before the wedding. Hence there is no courting in Turkey.

And these are only a few of the strange customs of this peculiar country. For the rest you must consult your larger histories.

The United States of America.

THE Spaniard came, but he was not seeking for a home—only for treasure. He plundered the natives, and he went. The Frenchman came. He was seeking commercial advantages and the propagation of his religion. He explored, he preached, and he went. The Englishman came. He was seeking for a home. He made it, and he remained. Such, in brief, is the early history of our country. The mound-builders, the cliff-dwellers and the red men had here a history earlier than that, but it was not written, and probably it never can be.

Names of rivers, regions, and occasional towns remind us of the Spaniard and the Frenchman; but, beyond this, almost the only monuments of those early visitors are the old walled city of St. Augustine in Florida, and the monasteries along the California coast. Spaniard and Frenchman were only long enough together on our southern Atlantic seaboard to murder each other in a savage warfare before the tide washed out their footprints; and the earliest English colony, sent out by the unfortunate Walter Raleigh, disappeared mysteriously somewhere in North Carolina. Nine such expeditions had failed, when Raleigh, still hopeful of possessing the New World, wrote: "I shall yet live to see it an English nation."

THE FIRST ENGLISH COLONY.

But in May, 1607, an English colony landed in Virginia and founded Jamestown, on the James river, about fifty miles from its mouth. This colony was sent out by the Virginia Company of London, in three

ships, carrying about two hundred persons—planters, tradesmen, mechanics, laborers, and two physicians. Christopher Newport was the fleet-captain, and second in command was Bartholomew Gosnold, who had made extensive explorations on the coast of New England. The colony was authorized to mine for precious metals, and coin money, and to collect revenue from vessels for twenty-one years. These early English explorers, like the Spaniards who preceded them, persistently looked for gold and silver as the chief reward of their risks and toils. On arriving in Chesapeake Bay, they opened the sealed orders that the king had given them. These appointed seven men as councilors, including John Smith, who ultimately became the leader and most important man of the colony. Of the geographical names that they bestowed, Cape Henry, Point Comfort, and James River still remain. They ascended the river, and built Jamestown, a village of poor shelter, according to Smith's account. About half their number died in a few months, but other settlers were sent out to them, till there were five hundred. Smith then left them, and affairs went so badly that in 1610 they abandoned the settlement; but as they descended the river they met another party, commanded by Lord Delaware, coming to join them, and this determined them to remain. In 1619 a Dutch vessel brought them a small cargo of slaves from Africa, and this was the beginning of what proved to be one of the great tragedies of history.

Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, sailed for the coast of America in 1609, expecting to find an opening in the continent through which he could sail to China and Japan. He entered New York Bay, and ascended the river that now bears his name. From this it followed that Manhattan Island (New York) was first settled by the Dutch, who called it New Amsterdam.

The Spanish voyagers had come hither for noth-

ing but gold and silver, the French to pursue a similar quest in the South and to propagate the Catholic religion in the North, the earliest English to found a colony of homes, and the Dutch to extend their trade.

THE PILGRIMS.

They were followed in 1620 by a colony with a very different motive. In the time of Henry VIII the English church had separated from the Roman, and a generation later some of the adherents of the English church separated from it in turn. They were not allowed to do this without being subjected to cruel persecution, which after a time drove them to Holland. A few years later, fearing that war between Spain and Holland would render existence unsafe for them there, and not wishing their children to grow up in Dutch surroundings, they resolved to find a home across the ocean, where they could enjoy their religion unmolested. A hundred of them, men and women, sailed to England, and thence, in the *Mayflower,* across the Atlantic, the voyage occupying more than two stormy months. They had been so hindered before sailing that they arrived on the bleak New England coast in the late autumn, when they should have been there in spring. They drew up and signed, in the cabin of the *Mayflower* as she lay in Cape Cod harbor, a brief constitution for civil government, and on December 22 they landed on Plymouth Rock. The terrible hardships of that winter cost the lives of half the colony, and it probably never would have been strong and successful but for the fact that it united with another called the Massachusetts Bay Colony, which came eight years later, and, with still others, founded Boston and the neighboring towns.

These settlements were important because, with their institutions of religious liberty and civil government, they were a determining force in the shaping of the character of the great Republic that now extends

across the continent, has its harbors on both oceans, and has made any further search for a northwest passage unnecessary.

THE THIRTEEN COLONIES.

Other settlements were made along the Atlantic coast until, before the middle of the eighteenth century, there were thirteen colonies, each independent of the others, but all owing allegiance to the British government. The governments of these colonies were not all alike in form and origin, but in practical working there was little difference. New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia were royal provinces; their governors and councils were appointed by the king, and the governor appointed all the other officers. To Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut the king had granted written charters, and their government was democratic. Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland were proprietary colonies; the territory was granted by the king to proprietors as their property, and they organized their own governments to suit themselves.

As these colonies increased in population and wealth, it became evident that some kind of union among them would be an advantage to all, and there were several plans for such an alliance. The most noteworthy of these attempts at union was in 1754, when a convention met in Albany, New York, and adopted a plan drawn up by Benjamin Franklin, which of course had to be presented to the British Parliament. The British Board of Trade opposed it on the ground that it gave too much power to the colonies, and most of the people of the colonies opposed it because it gave the king too much authority in local affairs.

THE FIRST CONGRESS.

Delegates from eleven of the colonies met in Philadelphia and organized on September 5, 1774, what was

called the Continental Congress. At its opening Patrick Henry made a speech in which occurred his famous declaration: "British oppression has effaced the boundaries of the several colonies. I am not a Virginian, but an American." This congress carried the country through the war of independence that soon followed; but it is a wonder that it could do anything of the kind, for it had very limited powers; all voting was by colonies (or States), each having one vote and concurrence of nine States being necessary to carry any measure. And when a measure was carried, there was no way to compel obedience on the part of the several colonies. This congress lasted about fourteen years, and met in various places—Philadelphia, Baltimore, Trenton, Lancaster, and others.

The colonists were exasperated by the numerous taxes that were laid upon them by the British government, and adopted several retaliatory measures, such as agreeing not to import nor use some of the articles that were taxed. In 1770 all the taxes were repealed by Parliament, except the tax on tea, which was retained as a formal assertion of the right of the English government to tax the colonies. As the Americans were not complaining so much of the amount of the taxes as of the fact that they were taxed at all, this did not satisfy them. Hundreds of families in Boston, New York, Philadelphia and other places signed agreements not to drink any tea. Vessels loaded with tea (of which the East India Company had controlled the output) sailed for Boston, New York and Philadelphia; but most of them were simply refused permission to unload it and had to take it back again. Governor Hutchinson, of Massachusetts, tried to have the cargoes landed from two vessels that were moored in Boston harbor. Thereupon sixty men, disguised as Indians, came together at twilight, December 16, 1773, boarded the vessels, and threw overboard 340 chests of tea. This is popularly called the Boston Tea-party.

As a punishment, Parliament passed, almost unanimously, a bill closing the port of Boston and removing the seat of government to Salem.

FIRST BLOODSHED.

With the purpose of defending themselves when it should become necessary, the colonists began to acquire arms and supplies. There was in Boston a garrison of three thousand British soldiers, who had fired on a riotous gathering of citizens in 1770—an event known as the Boston massacre—and were every day becoming more insolent and aggressive. It became known that a detachment of these soldiers was to be sent to Concord to seize a large quantity of supplies that the Massachusetts Committee of Safety had collected there, and a plan was made to warn the people of the towns they would pass through. In the night of April 18, 1775, two lights were displayed from a church steeple, and at once Paul Revere mounted his horse and rode toward Concord, rousing the people, who beat drums, rang bells, and made such alarm that the commander of the troops halted and sent back for reënforcements. They reached Lexington the next morning, where thirty-eight armed men were drawn up on the village green. The soldiers fired upon them, killing seven and wounding nine, and then resumed their march. At the bridge in Concord they were confronted by four hundred and fifty militiamen, who there, as Emerson has expressed it, "fired the shot heard round the world," delivering a volley that caused the British to retreat hastily. All the way back to Boston they were fired upon from behind trees and fences, and the whole detachment of eight hundred soldiers must have been destroyed or captured had not reënforcements come to their rescue. Their loss in this expedition was two hundred and seventy-three; that of the Americans one hundred and three. Thus was begun a war of seven years' duration that ended

in the independence of the colonies and the birth of a great republic.

Additional troops were sent from England to Boston, and the city was placed under martial law. But the gathering of native militiamen in the suburbs soon put the town virtually into a state of siege. Learning that the British commander was about to fortify Bunker Hill, which commanded the city, the provincial troops anticipated him, but instead of taking possession of that hill they occupied Breed's Hill, working all night to fortify it with hastily constructed breastworks. The next day (June 17, 1775) fire was opened upon them from British ships and from several batteries, and a column of three thousand troops was sent over from the city to dislodge them. The British marched up the hill, where all was silent until they came very near the breastworks, when suddenly a volley was poured into their ranks which created such havoc that they fled in disorder down the hill. They were soon rallied and marched up again, only to meet another volley and make another hasty retreat. But when they charged a third time, the provincials had used up their ammunition, and in their turn were compelled to retreat, abandoning the hill. While this was technically a victory for the British, it was morally a triumph for the Americans, because it not only inspired them with confidence but showed them that as antagonists they were not to be despised. The British loss was one thousand and fifty-four; the American, four hundred and fifty.

These encounters showed the colonists that if they were to secure justice for themselves they must fight for it; and they also showed them that as long as they stood shoulder to shoulder they could fight effectively.

WASHINGTON IN COMMAND.

The Continental Congress accepted the militia of the States as a continental army, and appointed

George Washington to chief command. He assumed the command at Cambridge, July 3, 1775, standing under a great elm tree. He had about seventeen thousand men, and he set to work immediately to discipline and instruct them as soldiers, and to erect fortifications in a great semicircle around Boston. Dorchester Heights was fortified, and in the winter heavy guns from Ticonderoga were brought down on sleds and mounted there. Thus besieged, the British forces were obliged to evacuate Boston in March, 1776. They went to Staten Island; and Washington and his army then moved to Long Island, where they were joined by troops from the Middle States. The battle of Long Island (on ground that now is in the outskirts of Brooklyn) in August, was a British victory, and the Americans, retreating, crossed to New York, closely pursued; and in September there was a drawn battle in Harlem Plains—near what is now the northern end of Central Park—and in October another at White Plains.

The importance of these conflicts was not in their significance as battles, for they were small, but in the fact that they awakened the Americans to the more radical idea of independence. Even Washington had not at first contemplated separation. There was no indication of a disposition on the part of the British government to placate the Americans, or to listen to their grievances, only a determination to subdue them by force.

FIRST MENTION OF INDEPENDENCE.

There were several partial declarations, or implied expressions, of independence, preceding the great Declaration. These included one in Mendon, Massachusetts (March 1, 1773), one in Milton, Massachusetts (September 6, 1774), one in Chester, Pennsylvania (May 31, 1775), and on the same day one in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina. Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, on June 7, 1776, moved in

congress that the colonies "are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States." This resolution was discussed pro and con, till a committee was appointed to prepare a formal declaration. This committee consisted of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston. Jefferson drew up the Declaration of Independence, and on July 1 Congress discussed it, making a few changes, and on the second adopted it. It was issued July 4, 1776.

Even at that time the country was large, and as there were no railroads nor telegraphs, it was not strange that the war was protracted in time and spread over much territory. The most important activities in the North included several conflicts at Bemis Heights and Stillwater, New York, which resulted in the surrender of the British army of six thousand men under Burgoyne, at Saratoga, October 17, 1777. Creasy includes this in the decisive battles of the world. Before this, Washington had crossed the Delaware (Christmas, 1776), surprised a British force of hired Hessian troops at Trenton, and captured one thousand of them, with guns and colors; and on January 4, by brilliant strategy and hard fighting, he had won another victory at Princeton.

WAR IN THE SOUTH.

The seat of war was shifted to the South when, late in 1778, a British force took possession of Savannah. An American army under General Lincoln, aided by a French force under Count Destaing, besieged the city, and there was heavy fighting in an attempt to carry it by storm. But the besiegers were unsuccessful, and the British held the place till the end of the war. They had also captured Philadelphia, and held it a year. There were several conflicts in the Carolinas, in which sometimes one side was victorious, and sometimes the other. The most significant was

that at Guilford Court House (March 15, 1781) between the Americans under Gen. Nathanael Greene and the British under Lord Cornwallis. The American loss was about four hundred; the British about six hundred. Greene retreated, leaving the field to the enemy, not knowing how much they had suffered. Cornwallis, though nominally victor, saw that his forces were too much broken to hold the States, and he also retreated, toward Wilmington. It was of this battle that Charles James Fox, speaking in the British House of Commons, said: "Another such victory will ruin the British army."

The British troops in the Carolinas and their sympathizers (called Tories, or Loyalists) were guilty of systematic and unheard-of outrages, by both connivance and command of Cornwallis, who thought by severe measures to crush out the spirit of independence. The leader of his cavalry, Colonel Tarleton, was so regardless of the rules of civilized warfare, and so murderous in his treatment of prisoners, that "Tarleton's quarter" became a term for massacre. After an infamous career, Tarleton was disastrously defeated at the Cowpens (January 17, 1781) by the Americans under Colonel Daniel Morgan. The American loss was but seventy-two, while Tarleton's numbered three hundred killed or wounded and five hundred prisoners. One order issued by Cornwallis declared that any Carolinian taken in arms might be executed for desertion. Dwelling-houses were burned, and cold-blooded murders were committed by British officers. They had a special spite against Presbyterians, because these formally supported the cause of the Americans; and they burned every Bible they could find which contained the Scottish translation of the Psalms, and in one instance at least burned the home and library of a Presbyterian clergyman. Such was the persecution that our forefathers endured in their determination to establish republicanism

in the place of monarchy. They took many prisoners in that war, but it is not recorded that they murdered any of them. An Italian proverb says it is the offender that never forgives.

SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS.

When Cornwallis abandoned the Carolinas he marched into Virginia. The French were now actively assisting the Americans, and Sir Henry Clinton, commanding at New York, fearing an attack there, drew off three thousand of Cornwallis's troops and ordered him to remain on the defensive. He therefore established a fortified camp at Yorktown, on the York river, where he was confronted by a force under Lafayette. In August, Count de Grasse arrived with a French fleet of thirty-seven ships, and Washington, seeing his advantage, promptly came with his troops from New Jersey, and the allied forces at once put Yorktown in a state of siege, the troops closing it in by land and the fleet on the river side. Cornwallis, finding himself helpless, offered to surrender. The generous terms of capitulation were signed on October 19, 1781, and the act of surrender took place two days later. There had been fighting in the course of the siege, in which the British lost five hundred and fifty men, and the Americans about three hundred. The surrender included seven thousand troops, two thousand sailors, eighteen hundred negroes, and fifteen hundred Tories.

When this news reached England, a month later, it astounded the ministry and caused an immediate popular demand for peace. George III, stupid and stubborn, was, after a time, compelled to acquiesce. Yet the British forces kept possession of the cities of New York, Charleston and Savannah for nearly two years after the surrender at Yorktown. The final treaty of peace, acknowledging the independence of the States, was signed in Paris, September 3, 1783.

In this war the Americans had employed about two hundred and thirty-two thousand soldiers in the Continental army and had spent about one hundred and thirty-five million dollars. Edmund Burke said, in the British Parliament, that it had cost England thirteen provinces, four islands, one hundred thousand men and more than seventy million pounds.

Though the new nation had successfully repudiated monarchical government, it did not immediately learn how to govern itself. Its unfavorable experience with the imperial government had produced in the minds of the people an almost unconquerable suspicion of any central government, and from this fa- arose the chief difficulty in federating the States.

FIRST ATTEMPT AT UNION.

Franklin, who was the author of the plan that was rejected in 1754, attempted once more to submit a plan to Congress, in 1775. This was the basis of a draft reported upon in committee, by John Dickinson, in 1776, and finally adopted November 15, 1777. It was entitled "Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union of the Colonies," and it went into effect July 9, 1778, when eight States had ratified it. There were thirteen articles. The name adopted for the federation was "The United States of America." The confederation was declared to be a firm league of friendship, an alliance defensive but not offensive, each State to retain its sovereignty and every power not delegated to the central government. Congressional delegates were to be appointed by the legislatures, and each State was to have one vote in Congress; every State was to have a well regulated militia; the central government was to determine questions of peace or war, make treaties, and regulate the value of coin. No measure of importance could be passed unless it received the votes of nine states. It soon became evident that no such loose-jointed confederation

would ever make a nation. The articles were severely criticised. One commentator concluded his indictment with the words: "In short, Congress may declare everything, but can do nothing"—and this was very nearly true. There were statesmen who knew better; but they could accomplish nothing against the provincial jealousy and prejudice of the mass of delegates. Those were indeed, as Paine wrote, "the times that tried men's souls"; and if Washington had been anything less than the man he was, he would have despaired of carrying through the war for such a government.

THE CONSTITUTION.

After several States had protested against the inadequacy of the Articles, Congress provided for a constitutional convention to meet in Philadelphia in May, 1787. All the States except Rhode Island were represented in that convention. George Washington was made chairman, and one hundred working days were spent on the task of constructing the new constitution, which was finished and reported upon in Congress, September 17, 1787. There was much difficulty in obtaining the ratification of all the States, the most serious opposition coming from New York; but this was finally overcome, and when nine States had ratified it July 2, 1788, it was declared adopted.

Under this constitution, George Washington was chosen first president. He was inaugurated in New York in April, 1789. He served two terms and declined a third election.

Two political parties developed at this early day: the Federalists, who favored the power of the general government, and the Republicans, who clung to the idea of the sovereignty of the States, with the power of the central government limited as much as possible. They were also sometimes called Liberal Constructionists and Strict Constructionists, referring to their way of interpreting the constitution.

Washington was a Federalist, as was also his successor, John Adams. Then followed three Republican presidents, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, each having two terms. Then John Quincy Adams, son of John Adams (one term), followed by Andrew Jackson (two terms), and Martin Van Buren (one term), both of these being Republicans. In Jackson's time the Republican party changed its name to Democratic, while the Federalists were called Whigs. The fashion of emblems was carried into popular politics, and at all political headquarters throughout the country a tall flag-pole was erected. Andrew Jackson was called "Old Hickory," and the Democratic poles were all hickory, with a bush at the top. The great leader of the Whig party, Henry Clay, lived at Ashland, Kentucky, and all Whig poles were ash. In 1840 Mr. Van Buren was re-nominated, and William Henry Harrison was nominated by the Whigs. The country was suffering from hard times, and there was a great movement for a change of administration. Harrison's opponents tried to belittle him by representing him as living in a log-house with coon-skins nailed on the door to dry, and drinking hard cider. But his party neutralized the argument by representing these things in their emblems. Many large log-cabins were built for holding Whig meetings, during the campaign, and smaller ones were carried on floats in the processions, often with a chained coon sitting on the roof. At this time, too, began the custom of singing campaign songs. The most successful and famous of these was entitled "Tippecanoe and Tyler too"—Harrison having won the battle of Tippecanoe in 1811. It is sometimes said that Harrison was sung into the presidency.

The important events of Jefferson's administration were the war against Tripoli, which put an end to the payment of tribute to the Sultan of Morocco, and the Louisiana Purchase, which is treated of elsewhere in this volume.

WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

The most important event in Madison's administration was the war of 1812-15, against Great Britain. In spite of the treaty of 1783, the British government had to a large extent practically ignored the fact of American independence. Franklin remarked, in 1790, "That was only the war of separation; the war of independence is yet to be fought." And so it proved. The military posts, menacing our western frontier, which Great Britain had bound herself to give up, were not given up. England was at war with France, and to assist her in that struggle, her government, by "orders in council," gave secret instructions to her naval commanders to capture American vessels trading to French colonial ports; and this outrage was continued even after a treaty "of amity, commerce and navigation" was signed by British and American commissioners in London in 1795. And again, in 1807, England issued orders in council prohibiting all neutral trade with France or her allies, except in vessels that had first entered a British port. This was in retaliation for certain decrees issued by Napoleon. When he offered to revoke these decrees if England would at the same time revoke her orders in council, that government trickily evaded the issue, showing plainly a disposition to embarrass or destroy American commerce by whatever means she could. In addition to all this the English government claimed an unrestricted right of search. Their navy was in need of men, and it was a common thing for a British cruiser to stop an American merchantman on the high seas, select the ablest men of her crew, and carry them off on pretense that they were recognized as deserters from the British navy.

Conflicts over this practice came to a climax when the American frigate *Chesapeake,* having just left Hampton Roads for a cruise, and not being in fighting trim, was overhauled by the British man-of-war

Leopard. The commander of the *Chesapeake* refused to permit a search, and then the *Leopard* fired several broadsides, killing three American seamen and wounding eighteen. The commander then claimed as deserters four men, and it was afterward proved that three of them were American citizens.

The United States government had vainly tried to offset the effect of the orders and decrees by means of an embargo (prohibiting all exportation from American ports) in 1807-09, which created serious dissatisfaction among the ship-owners of the Eastern States.

Congress at last, June 18, 1812, declared war against Great Britain. The Federalists, who were now the party in the minority, strongly opposed and sharply criticised this action, their chief argument being that the country was not prepared for war. This was true; but until war was actually begun it never would be prepared. The outcome of this contest was a surprise on both sides of the Atlantic. For half a century English voices had confidently sung, "Britannia rules the waves," but now the statement met with a rude contradiction. On the other hand, the administration at Washington had so little faith in American sea-power that it seriously purposed to lay up its war-vessels to save them from capture. On learning of this, Captains Stewart and Bainbridge mounted fleet horses, rode in haste to Washington, and persuaded President Madison to let the navy take part in the war that was so largely based on its own grievances. And this the president did, against the advice of his Cabinet.

NAVAL VICTORIES.

In the first six months of the war, American naval vessels had six battles with British cruisers, and were victors in every one. The most noted of these encounters were those between the *Constitution* and the

Guerriere, the *Constitution* and the *Java,* the *United States* and the *Macedonian,* and the *Wasp* and the *Frolic.* The *Constitution,* from her hard fighting and repeated victories, obtained the popular name of *Old Ironsides.* These results were due to the superiority of American seamanship and gunnery. To the English public they were a revelation. One London paper said: "A powerful and rival nation is now rapidly rising in the West, whose remonstrances we have hitherto derided, but whose resentment we shall soon be taught to feel; who for our follies or our crimes seems destined to retaliate on us the miseries we have inflicted on defenceless and oppressed States, to share with us the fertile products of the ocean, and snatch from our feeble and decrepit hands the imperial trident of the water."

The work of the American navy was supplemented by that of a swarm of privateers that sailed from American ports. In the first six months, these vessels captured nearly three hundred British merchantmen with valuable cargoes, and they continued this work throughout the war, gathering spoils to the amount of millions of dollars. But victory did not always alight on American masts. In June, 1813, Captain James Lawrence, commanding the *Chesapeake*, sailed out of Boston harbor to fight the British frigate *Shannon,* and in the encounter he lost both his ship and his life.

CANADA INVADED.

At the very outset of the contest, Detroit was surrendered by the American General Hull. The first invasion of Canada in this war was in October, 1812, when an American force crossed the Niagara below the Falls, and fought the battle of Queenstown. This field was hotly contested, the British commander, Brock, was killed, and for a time the Americans were apparently winning the day, but British reënforce-

ments arrived from Fort George and turned the scale, securing a complete victory. In April, 1813, an American force attacked York (now Toronto), and after hard fighting captured the city and received the surrender of the garrison. The powder magazine of the town had exploded (probably by accident) and General Pike, the American commander, was mortally wounded by the falling stones, while a large number of men on each side were killed or injured. In August of the same year, Commander Oliver Hazard Perry, with a newly-built fleet on Lake Erie, met the British fleet, and after a bloody encounter captured it. His despatch announcing the victory is famous: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours." This sea-fight was quickly followed (September, 1813) by an expedition commanded by Gen. William Henry Harrison (afterward president), which crossed at Detroit, captured two or three small posts, and then followed the main force of British and Indians up the river Thames, till they were brought to bay near Moravian Town. Here a pitched battle was fought, which resulted in a complete American victory. Tecumseh, who led the Indians, was slain, General Proctor, commander of the British, abandoned his baggage and fled eastward on a fleet horse, and his army was practically destroyed. In most of these battles the British had the assistance of Indian allies, who committed their usual atrocities whenever opportunity offered. The battle of Lundy's Lane, a short distance west of Niagara Falls, was fought in July, 1814, with determined courage and severe losses on both sides. The Americans were technically victorious, but as they at once abandoned the field, it may be considered a drawn battle.

WASHINGTON CAPTURED AND BURNED.

There were three invasions of United States territory. In August, 1814, an expedition commanded by

General Ross and Sir Peter Parker entered Chesapeake Bay, ascended the Patuxent, defeated the American militia at Bladensburg, and marched on Washington, where they burned all the public buildings except the Patent Office. A little later they attempted to reach Baltimore, but met with an effectual resistance, and both Ross and Parker were killed. The fight at Fort McHenry was the occasion of Key's song, "The Star-Spangled Banner."

BATTLE OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN.

The struggle with Napoleon in the Spanish peninsula being now ended, considerable bodies of Wellington's veterans were sent across the ocean to take part in this war. One such force, commanded by Sir George Prevost, was ordered to invade New York by the same route taken by Burgoyne in 1777. It was expected that when the war ended the treaty of peace would provide that all territory should remain in the possession of the party that then held it. For this reason the British were desirous of obtaining control of the Saint Lawrence and Lake Champlain at the north, and the mouth of the Mississippi at the south. As the American garrison at Plattsburg had been diminished, Prevost marched on that place, reckoning on the coöperation of a fleet under Commodore Downie. He issued a proclamation calling on the inhabitants of that region to renounce the government of the United States and renew their allegiance to Great Britain, and to furnish his fourteen thousand troops with subsistence; but this demand met with no response. General Alexander Macomb, with fifteen hundred regulars and two thousand militia, defended the place, and Prevost made little headway. When the British fleet came up, September 11, he made a determined assault on the American fortifications, but his veterans were repelled at every point, on one part of the line by militia only. The American fleet

was commanded by Lieutenant Thomas Macdonough, who originated a device that gave him the victory. He laid kedge anchors broad off the bows of his vessels, with hawsers leading from them to the stern. Then, by winding in one or other of the hawsers, he could at once swing his vessel either way, or turn it round completely. He had four ships and ten gunboats, and his antagonists had four ships and twelve gunboats. The enemy came up in fine style, and the two lines of battle were soon ablaze. In fifteen minutes one British vessel struck her colors, but the fight continued, and when every starboard gun of Macdonough's flag-ship was disabled, he turned the vessel round and opened with the fresh battery on the port side. The British flag-ship attempted to imitate the manœuvre, but failed, and at the end of two hours and a quarter all the British colors came down, and the American victory was complete. When Prevost saw this, he made all haste to retreat into Canada. The American loss in this naval battle was fifty-two killed and fifty-eight wounded. The British loss was reported officially at fifty-seven killed (including Commodore Downie) and seventy-two wounded.

BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

The most important of the three invasions was that at New Orleans, in December, 1814. The *London Times* had announced that many vessels had been ordered from Bermuda to the Mississippi, and said that "most active measures are pursuing for detaching from the dominion of the enemy an important part of his territory." Very soon a large body of Wellington's veterans, commanded by General Edward Pakenham, were landed for an attack on New Orleans, then a city of twenty thousand inhabitants, with one hundred and fifty thousand bales of cotton stored in it, worth about thirty-seven million dollars. General Andrew Jackson commanded the defenders, and after

a strange preliminary battle, fought largely in darkness, established a line four miles below the city, reaching from the river on the right to a swamp on the left. Pakenham dug a canal across the isthmus to get boats from Lake Borgne into the Mississippi, that he might throw a force upon the western bank of the river and attack the Americans there. This and preparations for siege operations took some time, but on January 8, 1815, he was ready to attack Jackson's works, and Jackson was no less ready to meet him. The assault was bravely made, though with some blundering, but the assailants were cut down mercilessly by the American artillery and the deadly fire of the Kentucky riflemen. A regiment of Highlanders that went in with more than nine hundred men came out with one hundred and forty. Pakenham was killed, General Gibbs, next in command, was mortally wounded, General Keane seriously, and Colonel Dale, of the Highlanders killed. A few line officers, leading their men, reached the crest of the American works, only to be shot down; and the whole enterprise was a disastrous failure. In this battle, which lasted hardly a half-hour, the British lost seven hundred killed, fourteen hundred wounded, and five hundred prisoners. The American loss was four killed and thirteen wounded. Ten days later, the remainder of the British force withdrew to their ships and sailed away.

Of the many exploits at sea, one of the most notable was the cruise of the *Essex,* Captain David Porter. After service in the Atlantic, he sailed round Cape Horn and captured many English merchantmen in the Pacific. The British government sent out two powerful vessels to find and dispose of the cruiser that was thus destroying British commerce. They found the *Essex* at Valparaiso, and in their eagerness to destroy her did not hesitate to violate the neutrality of the harbor by attacking her there, March 28,

1814. After a bloody fight she was captured and the survivors of her crew were sent home as prisoners.

PEACE.

Had there been an Atlantic cable in those days, the terrible bloodshed at New Orleans would have been avoided, for on December 24, 1814, fifteen days before that battle, a treaty of peace had been signed at Ghent. This treaty said little of the causes for which the war was fought; but that did not matter, since something more powerful than paper and ink had settled the questions, and they have remained settled. The war cost the United States thirty thousand lives and about one hundred million dollars.

MONROE AND JACKSON.

There are two notable facts connected with the administration of President James Monroe (1817-25). At his reëlection in 1820, there was no opposition; he received all the electoral votes save one. He might have received that also, but one elector thought no president after Washington should be elected unanimously. It appears strange that this great honor should fall to a man who had done all he could to prevent the adoption of the constitution under which he was now elected. That period was called "the era of good feeling." The other notable event was his promulgation of that principle which is now known as "the Monroe doctrine," the declaration that no European power should be allowed to acquire any more territory on this western continent.

Monroe was succeeded in the presidency by John Quincy Adams, who was subjected to a great deal of paltry and unfair criticism, though he had a clean and honest administration. He served but one term (1825-29).

Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, hero of the battle of New Orleans, was the next president (1829-37), and

his administration is notable for three things. He introduced the custom of removing office-holders for purely political reasons, to put his own partisans in their place. Before his time there had been hardly a dozen removals; he made them by the hundred. In 1832 the State of South Carolina, not favoring the tariff law, set up the theory that a State might nullify any law of Congress, and attempted to put it into practise by refusing to pay duty on a cargo of imported sugar. President Jackson took a firm stand against this, and promptly suppressed the incipient rebellion by letting it be known that he would not hesitate to use military force to uphold the law.

There was in existence a United States Bank, chartered by Congress, whose notes were good all over the country. Its headquarters were in Philadelphia, and it had branches in several cities. Jackson was opposed to it for several reasons, the principal one being apparently political. He attempted to remove the chief officer of the Portsmouth, New Hampshire, branch and put a partisan of his own in the place. But the directors refused to allow the bank to be used for political rewards, and thereupon Jackson declared that he would destroy the bank. He ordered his secretary of the treasury to cease depositing government funds in that bank, but the secretary refused to do so, and had to resign. His successor also refused, and resigned. Then the president found a man who was pliable to his will, the thing was done, and the bank had to go out of business. It was soon found that the State banks were not safe depositories for government funds; many of them were unsound, with insufficient capital, and their notes were practically worthless. The government lands in the West, sold at the uniform price of one dollar and twenty-five cents an acre, were being rapidly taken up by settlers. But now the government was obliged to refuse the notes of State banks, and sell only for gold.

This precipitated a financial crisis and the hardest of hard times that the country ever has seen. The price of flour, for instance, rose to eleven dollars a barrel, because the notes of the State banks were so uncertain in value. The weight of this calamity fell mainly on the succeeding administration, that of Martin Van Buren, of New York (1837-41). The country was roused to indignation by the intolerable state of affairs, and Van Buren, renominated, was defeated by William Henry Harrison, of Ohio, a Whig.

With Harrison the Whigs elected as vice-president John Tyler, of Virginia, who had been a Democrat, their desire being to show themselves patriotic rather than partisan and gain votes from the rival party. President Harrison died one month after his inauguration (April, 1841), and Tyler, succeeding to his office, almost immediately reversed his policy and made his a Democratic administration.

WAR WITH MEXICO.

In 1844 Henry Clay, of Kentucky, the idol of the Whig party, was nominated; and against him the Democrats nominated James K. Polk, of Tennessee, who was elected. The chief event of his administration was a war with Mexico, which grew out of the annexation of Texas to the United States. Texas had revolted from Mexican rule, but Mexico never had acknowledged her independence. In that war every battle was won by the invading American army, the bloodiest being that of Buena Vista. The American generals were Winfield Scott and Zachary Taylor. Scott fought his way from Vera Cruz to the capital of the country, the city of Mexico, and, as it was expressed, "dictated the terms of peace in the halls of the Montezumas" (1847). The terms included the cession by Mexico to the United States of a large piece of territory, including what is now California, Nevada, Utah, Arizona and New Mexico. Another event was

the settlement of the Oregon boundary dispute. The British government wished to make the Columbia river the boundary, while the United States claimed all territory west of the Rocky Mountains up to the southern point of Alaska (54° 40'). The parallel of 49° was accepted as a compromise. The third event of those years was the discovery in California of the richest gold fields in the world (1848), and an immense immigration to that territory. Some went across the plains with ox-teams, some by way of the isthmus, and some round Cape Horn. The population increased so rapidly that in 1850 California was admitted as a State.

The next president was Gen. Zachary Taylor, of Louisiana, a Whig. He was inaugurated in March, 1849, died in the summer of 1850, and was succeeded by Vice-President Millard Fillmore, of New York. The notable event of his administration was the passage of the so-called compromise measures of 1850. These included a stringent law for reclamation of fugitive slaves escaping to the North and the admission of California to the Union as a free State. At this time, the three foremost statesmen died within a period of two years—John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, and Daniel Webster.

SLAVERY AND ANTI-SLAVERY.

The fugitive-slave law was so severe in its provisions that it roused serious opposition, and several of the Northern States passed what were called personal liberty bills to thwart it. The institution of slavery, which persisted in the Southern States, though it had disappeared from the Northern, had been a subject of contention and a menace to the Union ever since the constitution was adopted, and the resulting jealousy and distrust between the sections had steadily increased.

Franklin Pierce, of New Hampshire, who had been a brigadier-general in the Mexican war, was elected

president by the Democrats in 1852, over General Scott. The slavery dispute became very serious during his administration, partly because he attempted to execute rigidly the fugitive-slave law, but more because of the abrogation of the Missouri compromise. This was a law passed in 1820, which provided that all territory north of the parallel of 36° 30′ (the southern line of Missouri) should be free when made into States, with the exception of Missouri, which was to be admitted that year as a slave State. It was hoped that this would put an end to the controversy over slavery and bring permanent peace. But in 1854 Congress passed the Kansas-Nebraska bill, which repealed the Missouri compromise, and provided that those territories might become either slave States or free States, as their inhabitants should determine. This resulted in a state of war in Kansas, between the upholders of slavery and its opponents, which continued three or four years.

The abrogation of the Missouri compromise, with its immediate consequences, did more than anything else to intensify the slavery dispute and bring it to a crisis. For the first time a strong anti-slavery party was organized in the Northern States, which declared that its purpose was not to interfere with that institution where it existed, but to oppose any further extension of it into the territories. The slave-holders held that they should have the same liberty to carry slaves into the territories as to carry any other kind of property there; they threatened that if the new party should be successful in a national election, they would break up the Union by causing the slave States to secede. They held that any State had a right to leave the Union when it was pleased to do so.

That party was not successful in 1856, though it cast a very large vote. James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, the pro-slavery candidate, was elected. The slavery agitation continued through his administra-

tion; and when in 1860 the Republican party elected Abraham Lincoln to the presidency, the Southern States proceeded to carry out their threat of disunion. South Carolina was the first to secede, and was followed at short intervals by ten others. These formed a new union, called The Confederate States of America, with its capital first at Montgomery, Alabama, and then at Richmond, Virginia. Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, was chosen president, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, vice-president. This new government at once took possession of such United States forts, arsenals, etc., as were in the South. The last of these, Fort Sumter, in Charleston harbor, was defended by its commander, and the Confederate attack upon it constituted the first military operation of the war.

THE CIVIL WAR.

Then President Lincoln began to call for volunteers to suppress the insurrection and restore the authority of the national government in the South—seventy-five thousand at first, and more from time to time, till by the close of the war about two million had been put in the field. At the same time, the Confederate government was raising and equipping armies in the same way, and finally almost every white man in the South who could perform military service at all was in the field. The United States government also organized a large navy to blockade the ports of the Southern States, to prevent the Confederates from receiving supplies from abroad and from sending out their cotton to pay for them. Iron-clad gunboats were rapidly built for service on the western rivers, some being completed within a hundred days after the keel was laid. A great war was now fairly begun—longer and more terrible than any one supposed it would be. It lasted four years, from April, 1861, to April, 1865, and the loss of life was, on an average, four hundred

a day for every day of the four years. There were two thousand four hundred fights of sufficient consequence to be named in history, and the seat of war was spread over one million square miles. At this time there were thirty-four States, and the population of the whole country was thirty million—about twenty million in the North and ten million in the South, four million being slaves.

The first great battle was that of Bull Run, about thirty miles southwest of Washington (July 21, 1861). It was bravely fought on both sides, and ended in the defeat and retreat of the National army. This greatly inspirited the Southern people, and enabled their government to sell bonds in Europe, and thus get money to continue the war. At the same time it taught the Northern people that they must give their troops more drilling and discipline to make them effective soldiers.

In the west, the Nationalists were more fortunate. In February, 1862, an army commanded by Gen. Ulysses S. Grant, after a hard battle, captured Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland River, with its garrison of 14,000 men. The next month a battle at Pea Ridge, in Arkansas, resulted in the defeat of the Confederate forces; and on April 24 New Orleans, the largest city in the Confederacy, was captured by a fleet under Flag Officer David G. Farragut, and it was held till the end of the war.

April 6 and 7 a bloody battle was fought at Shiloh, Tenn., the Nationalists being commanded by General Grant, and the Confederates by Generals Albert Sidney Johnston and G. T. Beauregard. The Confederates had the best of it on the first day, but Grant received reënforcements in the night and won a victory on the second day. That same day Gen. John Pope, at Island No. 10 in the Mississippi, captured a Confederate force of 7,000 men, with all their arms and stores, and eight vessels.

Meanwhile, the largest army yet assembled, 121,000 men, was prepared at Washington to undertake the capture of Richmond. The command was given to Gen. George B. McClellan, who chose to move the troops by water to Fort Monroe and then march up the peninsula between the James and York rivers. Four hundred vessels were required for moving this army with its guns, ambulances, baggage, etc. This was in March, and in April McClellan's army began to move slowly toward Richmond. There was fighting at several points, the battles of Seven Pines and Gaines's Mill being severe. In June McClellan found that, because of the peculiar course of the Chickahominy river, he could not protect his base of supplies without having his army divided by the stream, and could not attack Richmond in force without endangering his base. Hence he retreated down the peninsula, changing his base to the James River. He was followed closely by the Confederate army, commanded by Gen. Robert E. Lee, and there was constant fighting all the way. This campaign was known as the Six-Days Battles. Thus that great plan ended in failure.

Late in August there was another bloody battle at Bull Run (a Confederate victory), and on September 17, at Antietam, Md., another between the armies of McClellan and Lee, which was the bloodiest day of the whole war, the losses being nearly 13,000 on each side. As Lee retreated, leaving all his dead and 2,000 of his wounded, the victory was with McClellan.

A few days later, President Lincoln issued his preliminary proclamation of emancipation. The final one, declaring the slaves free, was issued January 1, 1863.

In December, 1862, Gen. Ambrose E. Burnside, who had succeeded General McClellan in the command of the army, attacked Lee's army, posted on the heights of Fredericksburg, and was disastrously defeated. He in turn was succeeded by Gen. Joseph Hooker, who in May, 1863, fought the two-days battle of Chancel-

lorsville, which caused heavy loss to both sides and ended in Hooker's defeat and retreat.

General Lee then set out to invade the Northern States, and got as far at Gettysburg, Pa., when he encountered his old antagonist, the Army of the Potomac, now commanded by Gen. George G. Meade. Here the greatest battle of the war was fought. It lasted three days (July 1, 2 and 3) and ended in the defeat of Lee, who retreated into Virginia. The losses were more than 20,000 on each side. At the same time, an army under General Grant was besieging Vicksburg, an important Confederate stronghold on the Mississippi, and on July 4 it surrendered with its garrison of 28,000 men. These two great victories within four days are considered the military turning-point of the war; but that was by no means the end of the struggle. A terrible two-days' battle was fought in September on Chickamauga Creek, Ga., which left the Confederates in possession of the field, though they did not capture Chattanooga, which was their object.

Early in May, 1864, Grant, with an army of 116,000 men, crossed the Rapidan, announcing that his purpose was to find Lee's army and follow it until it should be captured or destroyed. At the same time Gen. William T. Sherman, with an army of 100,000, set out from Chattanooga, Tenn., to meet a Confederate army under Gen. Joseph E. Johnston and make his way to Atlanta, where the Confederates had great stores and manufactories of war-supplies. All these armies were veterans, and they fought with wonderful skill and determination. Grant's overland campaign, as it is called, was to both sides the most costly of the war; one heavy battle after another was fought as he moved southeastward, but Lee, having the shorter line, was able always to keep between his antagonist and Richmond. Then Grant swung his army across the James, and soon the contest settled down to a siege of Petersburg, where the railroads from the South

come together before entering Richmond. Sherman alternately fought and manœuvered, until he reached and captured Atlanta in September.

Meanwhile, in August Farragut's fleet had passed the forts guarding Mobile Bay, destroyed the Confederate fleet, and put an end to blockade-running at that port. And in June a notable battle was fought off Cherbourg, France, between the man-of-war *Kearsarge* and the Confederate cruiser *Alabama,* which ended in the sinking of the *Alabama,* the death of many of her crew, and capture of most of the others.

After destroying the Confederate works and magazines in Atlanta, General Sherman sent back all his sick and wounded, and cut the telegraph wires that led north, and in November, with 60,000 men, he marched through Georgia to the sea, reaching Savannah at Christmas. After resting there a while, he marched through the Carolinas, meeting a small army under Gen. Joseph E. Johnston.

The siege of Petersburg continued through the winter, the lines gradually drawing closer, Lee's army growing weaker and its source of supplies more uncertain and hazardous, till on April 2 his lines were so thinned and broken that Richmond had to be abandoned, and he fled westward. For one week there was a continuous running fight between his army and Grant's and on the 9th he was headed off at Appomattox Court House and there was obliged to surrender. Grant gave him the most generous terms, and his soldiers were paroled and dismissed to their homes. A little later, Johnston surrendered to Sherman on the same terms, and this was soon followed by the surrender of all the Confederate forces in the West, and the great war was ended. The Confederacy had been annihilated, the Union had been maintained, and slavery, the cause of the conflict, had been abolished.

President Lincoln had been reëlected by an increased majority in November, 1864. April 14, 1865,

he was shot to death by an obscure actor, whose principal motive was a desire to make himself famous.

PEACE.

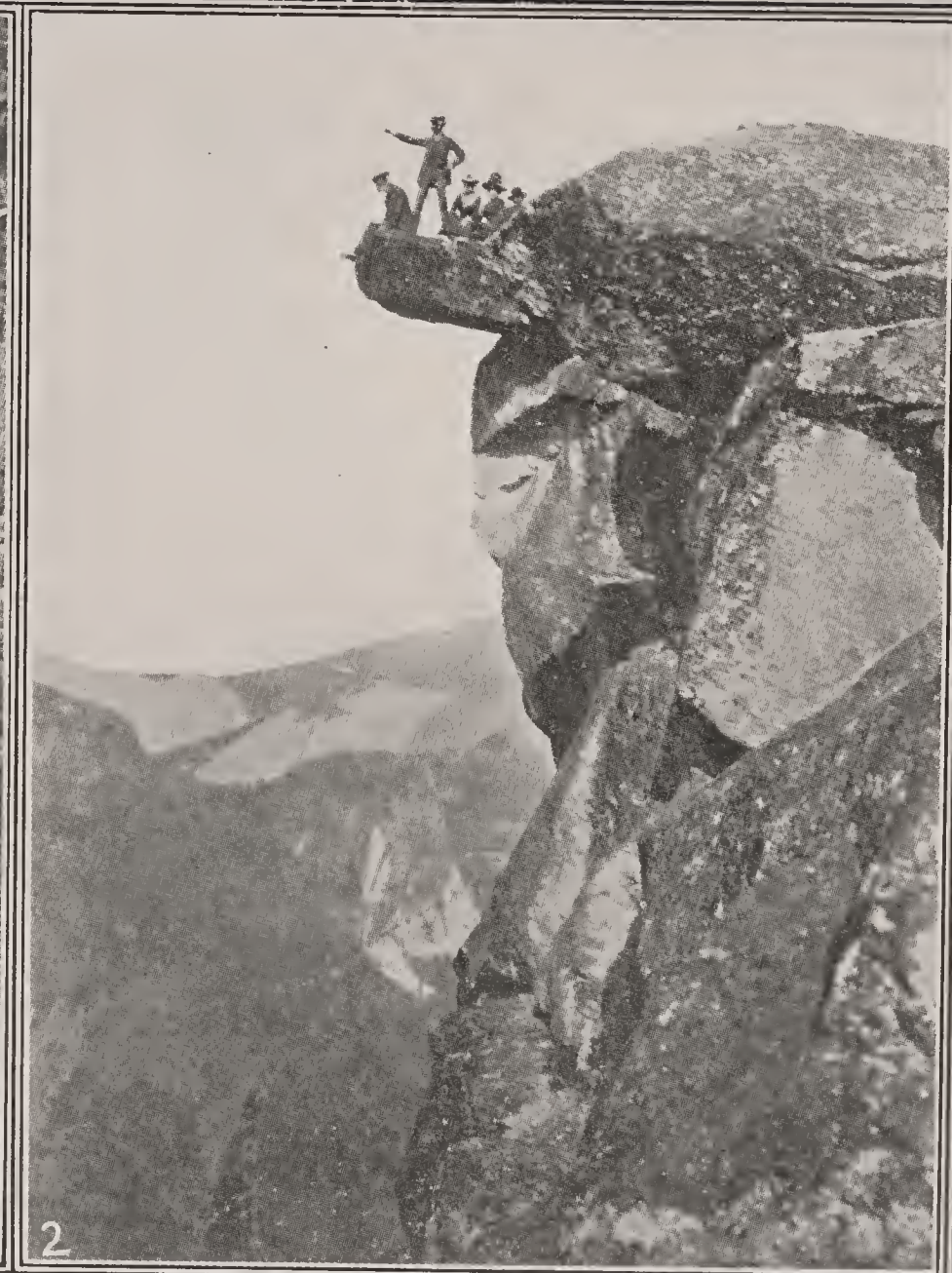
Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, as Vice-President, succeeded to the presidency. Two notable events marked his administration. The first was an unfortunate controversy between him and Congress, which resulted in his impeachment. At his trial he just escaped conviction, for which a two-third vote was necessary. The other was the purchase of Alaska (up to that time known as Russian America) for $7,500,000. Secretary of State, William H. Seward, who negotiated the purchase, was ridiculed for "investing in icebergs," but time has amply vindicated his judgment. General Grant was elected President in 1868, and reëlected in 1872. The most important event of his administration was the arbitration of the Alabama claims. During the war, several Confederate cruisers, the chief of which was the *Alabama,* roamed the seas, capturing and burning American merchantmen. Most of these crusiers were built in English shipyards, equipped from English arsenals, and had crews that were largely English; while the English government failed to stop them. The United States government now preferred a claim for damages, popularly called the Alabama claims. The English government agreed to submit the question to arbitration, and the court sat in Geneva, Switzerland, in 1872. The verdict was in favor of the United States, with an award of $15,500,000 damages, which the English government paid. The damage really inflicted by the cruisers was nearer $100,000,000, but the Americans cared less for the money than for the settlement of a principle of international law. American commerce never has recovered from that blow, and the commerce of other nations, especially the English, has profited proportionately.

Grant was succeeded in the Presidency by Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio (1877-81). The chief events of his administration were the restoration of the State governments in the Southern States, and the resumption of specie payments in 1879. From 1862 to 1879 only paper money had been circulated.

James A. Garfield, of Ohio, who had performed gallant service in the war, and had been a leader in Congress, was elected President in 1880, and inaugurated in March, 1881. In July he was shot by a disappointed office-seeker, and he died in September. Vice-President Chester A. Arthur, of New York, who succeeded to the presidency, had an uneventful administration, except for a serious reaction in his party, which resulted in the election of Grover Cleveland, of New York, the Democratic candidate, in 1884. The most remarkable event of Cleveland's administration was the fact that his third annual message was devoted exclusively to a discussion of the tariff, which secured his renomination in 1888, but he was defeated by Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, in whose administration Hawaii was annexed. Harrison himself was defeated in turn by Mr. Cleveland, because of a high protective tariff law that was enacted in the last year of his term. But the author of the tariff law—William McKinley, of Ohio—was elected President in 1896, on the issue of free coinage of silver, which he opposed.

WAR WITH SPAIN.

In 1898 a Spanish army in Cuba was dealing so mercilessly with the insurrectionary inhabitants that the American people were aroused to indignation, and the United States government vainly protested. The American battleship *Maine,* being at anchor in the harbor of Havana, was mysteriously blown up, and most of her crew perished. It was believed that this was the work of Spanish treachery, and war became inevitable. The first engagement after the declaration took place in the harbor of Manila, Philippine



AMERICAN SCENERY.

1. The Royal Gorge, Colorado.

2. Glacier Point, Yosemite Valley, California.

Islands, May 1, 1898, when a fleet under Admiral George Dewey sailed in, destroyed the Spanish fleet, silenced the shore batteries, and took the place without the loss of a man. On July 4 a Spanish fleet, coming out of the harbor of Santiago, Cuba, was chased and destroyed by an American fleet, and subsequently the United States army attacked and captured the works commanding the city. An American force also took possession of the Island of Porto Rico. By the treaty of peace, the Philippines and Porto Rico were ceded to the United States, and Cuba was liberated to remain for a few years under American protection.

President McKinley was reëlected in 1900 and in September, 1901, while holding a reception during the Pan-American exposition in Buffalo, was shot by an anarchist and died a week later. Vice-President Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, served the remainder of that term, and was elected President for a full term in 1904. His successor is William Howard Taft, of Ohio, elected in 1908.

MODERN PROGRESS.

The Union now consists of forty-six States, which, with the territories of New Mexico and Arizona, cover an area of 3,000,000 square miles. Its island possessions include the Philippines, the Hawaiian islands, Guam, Porto Rico, and a good harbor in Samoa. In wonderful and useful inventions the Americans have surpassed the whole world. The steamboat, the telegraph, the telephone, the phonograph, the reaping machine, the sewing machine, the typewriter, the typecasting and setting machine, the rapid printing press, artificial ice, the sleeping-car, the kodak, the use of anæsthetics, the elevator, and a large part of the modern use of electricity for light, power, and traction,—all these originated with American inventors, besides a multitude of minor devices that are in daily requisition.

The world has never seen anything to equal the

rapid development of the American Republic on commercial and industrial lines. It is not yet a century-and-a-half old, yet, from thirteen weak colonies, struggling with all kinds of disadvantages, it has grown into a great power with which the nations of the world have to reckon, and is the wealthiest of them all. There is no territory on the face of the globe, of equal extent, that can match the United States in natural advantages; and hither came the men and women of pure purpose and high ideals that were necessary for the building of a great and enduring nation. They had courage, they had skill, they had staying power, and they had reliance, not only upon themselves, but upon something higher than themselves as well. They determined the character of the government, the laws, and the institutions that now, in all probability, are too well established ever to be overturned by the wiles of professional agitators or by any revolutionary craze. They gave us a country not burdened with any hereditary aristocracy, while offering to every industrious citizen an opportunity to rise to any station he may desire; not hampered with a state church, thereby insuring the greater purity of free religion; not taxed for a great standing army, but having a citizen soldiery that is quickly responsive to any emergency and has been victorious in all its wars.

THE TIDE OF IMMIGRATION.

The character of the Republic having been thus determined, its gates were thrown open to immigration, and a steady stream has poured in from the old world. Most of the immigrants have been poor, and many ignorant; but nearly all have come seeking only an opportunity to be industrious and to get a fair reward for their labor, which is the first virtue of a citizen. In the first ten years after the establishment of independence—1783 to 1794—the immigrants numbered about 4,000 a year. In the next quarter century, varying

conditions in Europe caused great fluctuations in the number, but, in 1819, Congress passed an act that required a record of immigration, and from that date we have accurate statistics. In 1820, the number was 8,385. By 1842, the annual arrivals had trebled, and, as the rich lands of the west were rendered accessible, the increase was rapid. After the discovery of gold in California, in 1848, the rate was enormously increased, until, in 1861, the arrivals were 142,877. At that date the Civil War checked immigration, but, when the war was over, the tide set in again, rising steadily till, in 1910, it was 1,041,570. The earlier immigrants were from northern Europe; the later from the southern countries of that continent, with some from China and Japan.

ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT.

The earliest exports were almost entirely agricultural products—tobacco, rice, indigo, cotton, and breadstuffs; and, while these have increased with the increase in population, a great variety of others have been added. There are now nearly 7,000,000 farms in the country, which, with their equipment, are valued at about $30,000,000,000, and the annual value of their products is more than $8,000,000,000. The corn crop is the most valuable, and the cotton crop ranks next.

When Pouchot, the French soldier and explorer, was here in 1755-1760, he observed oil springs near the headwaters of the Allegheny river; but the full discovery of that great source of wealth was not made till a century later. Then wells were bored in rapid succession, and, within a few years, American petroleum was shipped all over the world. Still later, it began to be sent to distant points in our own country through pipe-lines, like gas and water. And then came the discovery of natural gas, which furnished many towns with the means of lighting and heating. Cold storage for meats and fruits, and refrigerator cars, have developed another immense business; and the

canning of fruits, fish and meats still another. The scientific preparation of cereals for breakfast foods has grown to such proportions that from one town in Iowa eighty carloads of a prepared cereal are sent out every day. The iron and steel business has grown to such proportions that a large part of it is now conducted by a consolidated company, with hundreds of millions of capital, which has its own fleet of steamers on the great lakes, bringing ore to its furnaces, while its mills roll out thousands of tons of steel rails, armor plate for battleships, and other heavy work. American locomotives, sewing-machines, typewriters, farm implements, and optical instruments go to all parts of the civilized world; and the manufacture of apparatus and supplies for electric lighting and power employs thousands of persons and millions of capital, and has developed great copper and tin mines in the northwest. In 1860, the cotton crop of the United States was 4,861,292 bales; in 1910, it was 10,650,961 bales. Since the Civil War, mills have been built in the Southern States, and now an increasing part of this crop is manufactured there, turning to advantage many water-powers and thousands of hands that were formerly idle.

COMMERCE.

The foreign commerce of the United States has increased with the development of the country, till its average annual exports are now valued at nearly $2,000,000,000. When California was yielding up its great stores of gold, every steamer took millions of it abroad, because we bought from Europe more than we sold there. But that state of affairs has been reversed. Of cotton and cotton goods we send abroad about $500,000,000 worth a year; of breadstuffs, $150,000,000; of iron and steel manufactures, $180,000,000; of oil, $200,000,000; of meat and dairy products, $200,000,000; and of various other commodities several hundred million dollars' worth. The dutiable imports are worth nearly $800,000,000; and those free of duty

nearly $700,000,000. The chief imports are silk, sugar, coffee, hides, wool, and manufactured articles of cotton.

The annual domestic commerce includes grain shipments of more than 118,000,000 bushels,—wheat, corn, oats, barley and rye; lumber, 1,150,000 thousand feet; and iron-ore 40,000,000 tons. The tonnage that passes the Sault Ste. Marie and Detroit river exceeds that of the Suez Canal. While our foreign commerce is almost entirely in foreign ships, our coastwise trade is conducted solely by our own vessels. The greatest engineering enterprise ever undertaken is the Panama Canal, which the United States government has placed in charge of army officers and is pushing toward completion with a steady progress. This will not only facilitate the protection of our American coasts, but extend American commerce.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE.

From duties on imports, internal revenue, postal revenue, and other sources, the government receives more than $850,000,000 a year. The civil establishment costs $175,000,000; the War Department, $165,000,000; the Navy Department, $125,000,000; pensions, $161,000,000; the Indians, $17,000,000; and interest on the national debt, $22,000,000.

EDUCATION.

In no country in the world are colleges and public schools so richly endowed and so numerous as in the United States; and all but a small percentage of the inhabitants are within reach of free public libraries. Three of the largest of these are housed in a way to excite the pride of every citizen—the Congressional Library, the Boston Public Library, and the recently completed New York Public Library. The greatest telescopes in the world are made by American artisans and mounted in American observatories; while, in direct connection with industrial development, there

are numerous agricultural colleges, experiment stations, and manual-training schools.

Keeping pace with this spirit of advance, the settlement of the great West has gone on rapidly, developing fabulous riches in the mines and the soil beyond the Mississippi, where so wise a man as Daniel Webster once declared there never could be anything but a howling wilderness. The country contains more miles of railway than all Europe, has the richest silver mines in the world, with untold stores of coal and iron, and numerous fine harbors, and can produce within her own borders everything that civilization calls for, with perhaps the exception of India rubber, quinine and diamonds. If every harbor on our coasts were blockaded by a hostile fleet, we could all live luxuriously under our own vines and fig-trees.

With Niagara, the Mammoth Cave, Yellowstone Park, Yosemite Valley, the several lake regions, the high Sierras, the petrified forests, and the Grand Canyon of the Colorado, we need not go abroad for natural wonders.

Ours is the only country in the world that, situated in the heart of the north temperate zone, borders broadly on both oceans—the Atlantic, the ocean of history, and the Pacific, the ocean of the future. With our wide reaches in latitude and corresponding variety of climate and productions, our rich mountain chains, navigable rivers, numerous lakes, and fertile prairie lands, we are already the wealthiest nation on earth, and with a popular government and a patriotic people, we may well be the happiest.

Wales.

GEOLOGISTS have discovered that long before the hills, valleys, and plains of England emerged from the sea, the mountains of Wales had reared their rocky summits in solitary grandeur.

The soil of Wales is the most ancient in Great Britain. After it became inhabited by wild Celtic tribes it was divided into several little principalities, each having its own chief. The Celts were conquered by the Romans about the year 50 A.D., but after these legions withdrew from the land the Welsh quarreled incessantly for years with the Saxons. William the Conqueror reduced them to order and kept them in submission. Two hundred years later the Welsh princes rose in rebellion against Edward I, but in 1282 were forced to submit to English rule, and at last their country was united with England, the title of Prince of Wales being given to the King's infant son, who was born at Carnarvon Castle. Under Henry VIII Wales was divided into twelve "shires;" and since that time the Welsh people have had the same government and rights that are enjoyed in the other countries under the rule of England.

Having thus been the scene of heroic struggles for freedom continued for many centuries with different nations, Wales abounds in the remains of encampments, fortresses, castles, and castellated mansions. The ruins of churches and monasteries also are numerous, besides many vestiges of altars used for the strange ceremonies of Druidic worship.

In this ancient land, comparatively little visited by tourists, one finds among its hills and mountains, its valleys and glens, lakes and rivers, scenes of wild beauty and grandeur, associated for the most part with historic events and traditionary legends.

The Welsh always have been, and still are, a distinct and remarkable people. Although English is used among them as a language of business and culture, more than half the population still speak the strange, almost unpronounceable language of their remotest ancestors, containing many words almost without vowels and with extraordinary successions of consonants. The appearance of the Welsh people differs considerably from that of the other inhabitants of

Great Britain; they are mostly dark, decidedly short, and inclined to stoutness. They are quiet, industrious, and domestic, but shy and silent with strangers. The farming class, or peasantry, cherish many of the old customs and superstitions of their forefathers; they never forget the glory of their princes, warriors, and poets—or "bards," as they called their wandering singers and have many wild, mournful songs to their memories.

The highest point in South Britain is the Mount at Snowdon in the northwestern part of this territory, which rises 3,570 feet above sea-level. The whole country is hilly, and of its area of 7,363 square miles only a twentieth part is under cultivation, the other portions being grass land and mountain pastures, on which graze enormous flocks of sheep and herds of cattle, the former numbering about 3,000,000 a year and the latter 600,000. Farming is the occupation of a very large number of the 1,500,000 inhabitants of Wales. The other great industry is coal-mining. Wales has some of the richest coal-fields in Europe and produces each year about 22,000,000 tons. Cardiff, on the southwestern coast, is the greatest coaling-port in the world. Flannels and coarse cloths are manufactured in many of the larger towns.

Three rivers of England of which we often read in English novels and poetry rise in Wales—the Dee, the Wye, and the beautiful Severn, largest of all.

The most convenient route to follow in entering Wales is to go by rail from Chester, England; thence one has only to chose among several routes in order to see the most attractive places in this ancient land. Almost everyone feels an interest in Hawarden, as having been the home of retirement of the great English statesman, William Ewart Gladstone. It is a pretty, peaceful village, but it was once the scene of terrific conflicts between the valiant Welsh and the encroaching English. Holywell, a large mining town,

shows an odd mingling of modern buildings and quaint old customs, one of which is owing to the fact that the church is so situated that not all the inhabitants can hear the bell; so a man is employed to go about as a walking belfry, bearing a large bell hanging from his shoulders and a cushion buckled round one knee. As he walks, the cushion strikes the bell, and thus the people are summoned to church service. This custom is followed in other Welsh towns. Holywell derives its name from St. Winifred's Well, reckoned as one of the wonders of Wales, from an old legend of a beautiful and pious maiden who wished to become a nun but was pursued by a princely wooer who, when she refused to marry him, killed her, whereupon a deep spring of water gushed forth from the spot where the maiden fell, which flows to this day, and is reputed to have wonderful powers of healing disease. It flows at the rate of twenty-four tons to the minute, is seldom affected by droughts, and never freezes. It is enclosed in a Gothic building erected by the mother of Henry VII.

Conway is an ancient fortified town, beautifully situated on the river Conway. It contains some curious old houses, built in the time of Queen Elizabeth, a frequent decoration in them being the carved initials of the Queen intertwined with those of her favorite courtier, the haughty Earl of Leicester. Conway Castle was a magnificent fortress built in 1284 by Edward I, where he or his representatives could watch over the rebellious Welsh and suppress any insurrection on their part. A frequent sign at the inns of many of the Welsh towns is a harp, once preëminently the favorite musical instrument of the country. The old Welsh harpists are famous; many of them improvised their own wild, melancholy songs as they struck the strings.

Wrexham is a lively market-town, of ancient Saxon origin. Its chief attraction is the church, built twenty years before Columbus discovered America, but still

in an excellent state of preservation, with a superb chime of bells. Here was born the infamous Englishman, Judge Jeffries, called "the hanging Judge" from his relentless cruelty toward prisoners brought before him.

The Mount at Snowdon is the chief object of interest to mountain tourists in Wales, and the view from the top is well worth its difficult ascent. On a clear day the loftiest points in England, Scotland, and Ireland are visible, while the Isle of Man, sparkling with ocean lights, and Anglesey, with her rocky hills and coasts, are spread like a map before the eye.

The West Indies.

THE West Indies are a group of islands south and east of Florida, comprising Cuba, which is the largest, Jamaica, Santo Domingo (also called Haiti), Porto Rico, and Trinidad, with many smaller isles. North of the West Indies proper lie the Bahamas, while to the south is the Caribbean Sea, extending to the northern coast of Venezuela; the islands are strung along in a curved line east and south that embraces this sea on two sides, beginning with Cuba, which lies closest to Florida, and ending with Trinidad, almost in the mouth of the Orinoco river.

These islands are all within the tropics, and have a climate of perpetual summer. But their heat, though continuous, is gentle, usually fluctuating between 65 and 80 degrees Fahrenheit, never touching the extremes known to New York or Boston in summer, and never falling to frost, even on top of the mountains, some of which are quite lofty.

HISTORY.

The history of these islands since their discovery by Columbus is romantic in the most picturesque sense

of the word. Here it was that the ships of war belonging to England, to France and to Spain thundered and struggled for mastery through three generations; here the pirates had their headquarters, swooping out on the heavy-laden merchantmen that plied between the rich coasts of the islands and South America and European ports, or quarreling with each other; here fabulous fortunes were made in sugar, the planters living in an almost royal state, served by hosts of slaves, dispensing a princely hospitality, keeping open house for all travelers with the proper credentials. On one of the smaller islands, Nevis, Alexander Hamilton was born, as well as Admiral Lord Nelson's wife; and Napoleon married a creole from Martinique, the Empress Josephine.

Among the pirates, Morgan, Black-Beard, or Teach, are the most notorious. Morgan was perhaps one of the greatest buccaneers that ever lived, and it was largely due to his fierce fighting that the Spanish ships were swept from the Caribbean. He became the Governor of Jamaica, and was recognized as a mighty captain. After all, in those days, there was not much to choose between legitimate warfare and the piratical free-lances, except that the latter ran more risks, having every man's hand against them.

Following the days of constant fighting, when blood enough was shed to dye the bluest of seas a sinister crimson, came the time of the islands' greatest prosperity. Sugar brought very high prices in the markets of the world, spices, tobacco and the more precious woods, like mahogany, were also in demand, while the slave labor cost practically nothing. An almost patriarchal mode of life distinguished the rich planters, and many stories of the enchanting entertainments, the ease and beauty of existence the fêtes and excursions of that time are told. The traveling was chiefly on horseback, owing to the mountainous nature of the country, and two or three days were often

spent in going from one plantation to another, the travelers everywhere meeting with the most charming hospitality, whether they were strangers or old friends.

Each of the important islands had its different ways, according to nationality—English, Spanish or French—for the habits of the mother countries naturally ruled, modified by the necessities of the climate and the presence of the large black population. Barbadoes and Jamaica were English, and Trinidad was captured by the same nation from Spain in 1797. Cuba and Porto Rico were Spanish until the war of 1898 with the United States, when the latter became an American possession, and the former, after a brief season, attained independence. Martinique and Haiti belonged to France. The latter has since become an independent island divided into two republics governed by blacks and mixed bloods. Revolutions occur frequently, and the island is far behind the rest in all that goes to the making of modern life. As for Martinique, the terrible earthquake and eruption (1902) which destroyed the city of St. Pierre, wiping out the entire population of more than 40,000, gave the beautiful island a tragic blow from which it has not yet recovered.

CUBA.

Cuba is by far the largest of the West Indies, having a length of nearly seven hundred miles with a breadth varying from about fifty to a hundred. Havana, the capital, is the most beautiful of West Indian cities, having the ancient charm of Spain mingled with a bright and clean modernity. Old castles, churches and public buildings still stand among the gorgeous tropic flowers and plants, while broad streets of fine residences recall Paris in their well-kept aspect. The main shopping street is hardly more than sixteen feet across, the shops quaint to a degree, while above, the sun is screened off by gayly striped awnings or arcades of stone and brick. The various houses are tinted pale

shades of pink, blue, green, tawny and every lovely shade imaginable, and are embowered in palm, orange and lime trees, climbing roses, stephanotis, bourgainvillia and jessamine, while the hibiscus grows to flaming hedges, and the oleanders sweeten the air with their delicate perfume. Following the curve of the harbor, one of most beautiful in the world, the new driveway known as the Malecon, or Seawall, extends its broad white ribbon. Beyond stretch the green plains, farther away the foothills rise, and still farther are the mountains. Beautiful valleys rich with all the luxurious growth of the tropics, immense fields dark-green with tobacco plants or vivid emerald, under sugar-cane, extend for miles. Toward the eastern end the mountains are higher and rougher, and Santiago, where mainly the war was fought out, lies on the southern coast at this same end. There are many other old towns, all touched with the Spanish charm of architecture and social customs, fine roads have been built, and a railway connects the chief points on the island.

JAMAICA.

Jamaica is the best known of the islands, partly because American capital has been very busy there, partly because of the earthquake that shook Kingston to pieces a few years ago and turned all eyes in her direction, but particularly because of the amazing loveliness of the island, with its high, crumpled mountains rising in places almost directly from the sea, and presenting a fine and bold outline, its wild rivers and the glory of its climate and vegetation. It has excellent hotels and visitors tour the island with ease, in spite of the height attained by the Blue Mountains, Blue Peak being more than 7,000 feet above the sea.

Its picturesque population of blacks, in their bandanas and prints, the women wearing baskets on their heads and doing most of the work, live in tiny whitewashed huts for the most part, and far outnumber

the whites. There are also numerous coolies, brought from India, wearing straight white cotton garments and turbans, the pretty, slender women wearing on ankle and wrist countless silver bangles, sometimes further bedecked with nose-rings and necklaces. These coolies have been imported to work on the plantations, since the negroes are too lazy to be depended upon.

Sugar is still grown, and rum is made, but the banana industry has outgrown every other. Some of the plantations extend farther than the eye can see, a waving forest of silver-green leaves rustling in the breeze. Most of the houses and bungalows resemble each other in general style, varying only as to size. Wide and low, with broad windows opening on verandas that are screened from the sun by the ever-present jalousies, they are both cool and pretty, the large rooms always open to the air.

The vegetation is indeed marvelous. Breadfruit trees, oranges and lemons, alligator pears, mangoes, indigo with its intense blue flowers, numerous varieties of palms and tree-ferns, with countless forest trees, make a jungle of verdure over hills and valleys. The coffee is grown on large plantations on the hill-slopes, its white, waxy flowers exceeding those of the orange in beauty and fragrance. The streams flow between banks of maidenhair ferns and begonias, and hundreds of kinds of flowering shrubs and creepers crowd in everywhere. Pine-apples and tobacco occupy whole fields, and rice is cultivated by the Hindoo coolies. Many brilliant birds fly and call about the bungalows or hide in the deep woods, while the turkey-buzzards (called locally Johnny-crows) are forever swinging in wide circles through the blue air. Along the shores the cocoa palms twist themselves fantastically, loving the salt water. Everywhere are color and the slightly heavy fragrance of the tropics, with white roads climbing upward loop by loop, traveled by bevies of market-women with their loads on their heads, by men leading

donkeys, coolies clinking with silver, persons on horseback, automobiles and the light, open carriages in use throughout the tropic islands.

OTHER ISLANDS.

What has been said of Cuba and Jamaica applies equally to the rest of the West Indies. Lying in the waters of the bluest sea in the world, jewel-like in beauty, having the advantages of the tropics without their drawbacks, picturesque as to population and varied as to architecture, each has its particular attractions. Porto Rico is in some ways more interesting to Americans, since it is ours, and since the mingling of the old and the new are very striking. Near as these islands are to us, they are curiously foreign and unforgetably lovely, with something of enchantment, like a fairy story.

CHAPTER VI.

The Building of Cities.

THE NATURAL GROWTH OF VILLAGE AND CITY COMMUNITIES.

WANDERING tribes have no cities, and no use for a city. But when a people have become settled in a territory that they consider their own, where they tend their flocks and till the ground, they need a general meeting-place where they can exchange their products and consult together for the general welfare. A necessity for some division of labor arises at once, and while the herders and farmers must occupy the rural district, the artisans and traders necessarily find their place in the center. This results in a town or village. As the people prosper and acquire other riches than cattle, their wealth is most conveniently kept in the town; and this stands as a temptation to individual robbers or predatory tribes. Therefore means of defense are necessary, and a strong wall is built around the town, with heavy gates that can be closed at night. The men that cultivate the farms can come into the town just before sunset, and go out after daybreak. And through the dark hours a watchman walks back and forth on the wall, to give notice of any approaching danger within or without. In Isaiah, LXII, 6, we read, "I have set watchmen upon thy walls, O Jerusalem." Troy in Asia, when besieged by the Greeks, was so well protected by its strong walls that the war lasted ten years. Babylon, in the time of Nebuchadnezzar, had a double wall and a moat besides. The quarrel between Romulus and Remus was caused by Remus's contempt for the wall that his brother was building around the new city—

Rome—jumping over it and saying it would not protect anything. All the important ancient cities were surrounded by walls, and the Latins had a special word—*oppidum*—to signify a walled town. The practice of enclosing cities with walls was continued until the invention of gunpowder and improved fire-arms rendered such walls useless. The old walls of York and Chester, in England, are still standing, adding to the picturesqueness of those cities, and on the Continent some cities whose walls have been outgrown and demolished still retain the old gates for their architectural beauty or historic interest. St. Augustine, Florida, the oldest city in the United States, was originally surrounded by a wall, a remnant of which, with one gate, remains to this day.

UPON WHAT CONDITION DOES THE LOCATION OF A CITY DEPEND?

Many ancient cities owe their existence to their positions as natural strongholds, such as Edinburgh, Scotland, which grew around her Castle Rock, and Quebec, whose rocky heights seemed to defy invasion, and there are still cities, comparatively small, that exist only as convenient trading-centers for an agricultural region. But every important city of modern times has a natural reason for its location and existence.

Wherever the edge of a continent or a large island is indented by a good harbor, there almost certainly a city will be built, and the size of the city will depend on the extent and richness of the region that is served by the harbor—that is, depends upon it for its foreign commerce. The excellence of a harbor is determined by its size, its depth, and its shape. If it is wide and deep, with a narrow entrance, that makes the vessels that are at anchor in it safest from storms; and when the tide rises in the ocean the comparatively small amount that it can pour through the narrow entrance

is spread out over the wide expanse within, so that the rise and fall of the surface is much less there than on the open ocean. This enables large vessels to come close to the wharves and be moored there for loading and unloading. Three good examples of such harbors are those of New York, San Francisco, and Rio de Janeiro—the largest cities on their respective coasts. To each of these harbors the entrance is one mile wide.

Another natural reason for the location of a city is the water-power. Wherever there is a considerable fall in a large, living stream, there is an opportunity for factories or mills of one kind or another, and with these come stores, banks, churches, newspapers, etc., making a city. Three good examples of this kind of city are Rochester, N. Y., at the falls of the Genesee, Minneapolis, Minn., at the falls of the Mississippi, and Ottawa, Canada, at the falls of the Chaudière.

A river that is large enough may be navigated as far from the ocean as it is free from falls and shoals, and the head of navigation on such a stream is a natural place for a city. This may be called an inland harbor, and its advantage is, that the goods brought by the ships may be carried by them far into the heart of the country, instead of being unloaded near the coast and then carried inland by rail or wagon. Albany, N. Y., Richmond, Va., and Washington, D. C., are examples of such a city, being at the head of navigation of the Hudson, the James, and the Potomac. Birmingham, England, not being on a navigable stream, built for itself a canal to the sea, and thus joined this class of cities.

Still another natural reason for the location of a city is found in the existence of mines. If coal mines and iron mines are near together, or if one of these is on a navigable stream by which the product of the other (coal or iron ore) can be brought to it, there will be built furnaces for the production of iron, and mills and foundries for its manufacture in various forms;

and as these are developed the accompanying village will grow with them until it is large enough to be a city. A good example of this is Pittsburg, Pa.

A few large cities—like Cincinnati on the Ohio and St. Louis on the Mississippi—have none of these natural reasons for their location, but have been developed from early trading-posts. The existence of such cities depends on the fertility and richness of the country immediately surrounding them.

THE GOOD AND THE EVIL OF CITY LIFE.

The great accumulations of wealth are all in the cities, because there are the best facilities for producing it and there it is safest. There, too, are most of the desirable things that wealth can buy. There are the great schools, the art-galleries, the hospitals, the theaters, the churches, and the finest stores. But they have their disadvantages as well. Manufactories that should be in healthful places in the rural districts, with room for everybody and plenty of light and air, are crowded into the cities, where many of the work-people are compelled to live in tenement-houses and slums. The accumulation of wealth in the city brings thieves there, and so there must be a police force. There must be water-works and drainage, and hence miles of water-pipes and sewers. Parks, or other open spaces, must be provided as breathing-places for the town. And all these things must be paid for in taxes.

We have chosen as representative cities of the various nations those whose histories are identified each with its own country—as the history of Paris is largely that of France, and as a study of London's history is at the same time a study of that of England. We shall roam from place to place, passing from the hoary monuments of Egypt, or the classic memories of Greece and Rome, to the bustling cities of the Western Hemisphere. Like Goldsmith's *Traveller,* we say:

"Creation's heir, the world, the world is mine!"

Amsterdam.

THIS highly picturesque city of Holland is situated at the junction of the Amstel river with the Ij (also written Y and pronounced "eye"), and is built upon ninety islands, connected by more than three hundred and fifty bridges. The city is formed like a bent bow, of which the Y is the string. Its thousands of houses and other buildings are erected upon piles, made of millions of trees, driven forty or fifty feet deep into the sand and mud.

Near Amsterdam is the Zuider Zee, a shallow gulf of the North Sea, eighty miles long and forty broad, which once was used as a harbor, but which became so filled up with silt that it was no longer navigable. A great waterway was constructed, at enormous expense—the North-Holland Canal—which was cut to the Helder river, fifty-one miles away; but even this could not accommodate large vessels, so another deep waterway was built—the North-Sea Canal, fifteen miles long—making direct connection between Amsterdam and the North Sea, so that the city is now a seaport town. Dikes are building to drain the Zuider Zee, which in course of time will be built up and planted with grains and grass.

In the center of Amsterdam is its largest square, the Dam, toward which all the principal streets lead. Here the street-cars start for all points, and near by the local steamers discharge passengers. Here also are the royal palace, the Exchange and the New Church. The palace is the handsomest in Holland. A whole forest of trees, in the form of piles, was used for its foundation, in 1648, and every stone had to be brought from a distance. It contains a hall 120 feet long, 57 wide and 90 high, lined with beautiful white marble—a magnificent apartment. From its tower all Amsterdam and its environs can be seen: the narrow, clean streets; the tree-bordered canals; gabled, red-roofed houses; and everywhere forests of

masts gliding along or standing still at anchor; while at a distance are seen the gardens of Haarlem, literally thousands of windmills, and the great canals leading to the open sea in long, straight lines of silver.

Amsterdam is a busy city, but its most widely-known industry is diamond-cutting. This work is so difficult that the workmen command high wages.

In the Rijks Museum are to be found the finest specimens of the Dutch School of painting—works of Rembrandt, Teniers, Jan Steen, Wouvermans, and Cuyp.

The Exchange is a handsome modern building, where the financial business of Holland is transacted. A curious annual custom is observed in August, when all the children of the city are allowed to enter the building and have a royal romp. This privilege is to commemorate an incident in the War of Independence (seventeenth century), when some boys discovered that the Spaniards had a boat in the canal laden with gunpowder, with which they intended to blow up the city. The boys gave warning to the authorities, and the Spaniards were driven away.

The churches of Holland are rather plain, the handsomest being the New Church in Amsterdam, begun in 1408 and completed with a tower in 1847. One peculiar custom in all churches is that the congregation sit with their hats on or off, just as they please, another is the wearing by the clergymen of the Puritan cloak and high ruff round the neck that were worn in England in the time of Charles I.

Charitable institutions are as numerous and varied as the needs of mankind. There are hospitals for the sick, the blind, and the insane, and refuges for widows, orphans, foundlings, and the poor.

For centuries the city of Amsterdam has held one of the most important places in the commerce of Europe, a position she seems likely to enjoy in even a greater degree in the future.

Athens.

WHERE else in the world is there so much to see and to feel as in Athens—that "haunted holy ground?" Every stream, every broken column and shaft, has a story associated with the most glorious period in the history of ancient Greece. The Piræus, a town on the Gulf of Ægina, is its seaport. Modern Athens is well-lighted, has well-paved streets, excellent hotels, and shops fitted up as tastefully as those of Paris. The rise of Athens, from the state of desolation that was hers when King George began his reign (1863) is marvelous. Before that time there was not one habitable house to represent the ancient metropolis. Now it is well built up and has a population of 128,000. The houses are constructed of undressed stone, which is plastered over and painted white, pale blue, pink or yellow.

The royal palace is large, but not handsome, though its front is of the celebrated white Pentelic marble. It is delightfully situated, however, in the midst of gardens, and with a fine view of the sea and of the magnificent ruins of the Olympeium, or Temple of Zeus Olympius. This splendid temple was begun five hundred years before Christ's birth, but was not finished until 135 A.D., in the reign of the Roman Emperor Hadrian. Its design was a marvel of beauty, and its execution unrivaled in the world. Its length was 380 feet, its width 184 feet; ten columns supported it at each end, and twenty-one on each side, with triple colonnades at the ends, and double ones at the sides. It contained the statue of Zeus, exquisitely wrought in gold and ivory by Phidias, greatest of all sculptors. All that remains now is a group of fifteen columns crowned with their capitals. Seen on a moonlight night, the beautiful columns of dazzling white marble appear to be the work of more than mortal hands; the Saronic Gulf, Ægina, and the coast of Argolis, form a background; near by is the Gate of Hadrian,

while above it rises the massive rock of the Acropolis, or citadel, three hundred feet high, crowned with the ruins of buildings, the most wonderful and beautiful the world has ever seen. On this rock the kings of Athens dwelt; here justice was administered, and here were the immortal Parthenon, the temple of Athena (or Minerva) and the Erechtheum. Neither Rome, with its Forum and Coliseum, nor Pompeii, with its thrilling tragedy, can compare with the Acropolis at Athens, the buildings of which were under the superintendence of Phidias. The Parthenon, or temple of Minerva, was of Pentelic marble, and in it once stood the statue of Athena, by Phidias. It was forty-seven feet high, and bore a life-size statue of Victory on one extended hand. The nude parts were of ivory, and the draperies and helmet of solid gold.

The Erechtheum was reared in honor of Erechtheus, a Greek demi-god, in 395 B.C., and it enclosed the most ancient shrines of pagan worship; the olive-tree said to have sprung up during the contest between Neptune and Minerva for the supremacy of Athens; and the salt well, which Neptune created by a stroke of his trident. Its southern portico, a part of which is all that is left standing, was called the Hall of Caryatids, from its roof being supported by six caryatids, or figures of maidens in long draperies, standing on an elevated basement. These ruins and ancient sites are all protected and constantly guarded.

All over the Acropolis are fragments of columns and pedestals; at one corner is a terrace, from which one obtains a view of modern Athens, which contrasts strangely with the Athens of history. Among masses of commonplace houses we see the Tower of the Winds, the Olympeium, the Arch of Hadrian, and other memorials of antiquity.

Berlin.

ACROSS a level tract that was once in part a marsh and in part a sandy waste, winds the slow German river Spree, with its many branches and canals. Upon this flat surface, covering an area of more than twenty-five square miles, stands Berlin (from "Berle," uncultivated land), once the Prussian barrack city, now the vast capital of the confederated German States, which after their great victory in the Franco-Prussian war of 1870 were consolidated into the German Empire. By means of the Spree, Berlin communicates with the Baltic and the North Sea; it is the center of a great network of railways; in commerce it stands in the front rank, and as a manufacturing town it is almost unrivaled in Europe. It stands third among the European capitals, and has a population of 3,400,000.

Berlin began its career of importance in the seventeenth century under Frederick William, the Great Elector, founder of the Prussian monarchy. He extended the town, made it a city, cleared away the surrounding forest, and planted the broad Linden-Allée, known as Unter den Linden, one of the famous streets of the world. Frederick the Great, who died in 1786, built hundreds of fine dwellings, also churches and public buildings. After Napoleon ceased to terrorize Europe, the city made great strides in population and wealth; and since the Franco-Prussian war it has become the magnificent metropolis that we see today.

The best way to get a general idea of the appearance of Berlin is to ride about on a surface railway running around the city, or to take a trip on an elevated railway built upon a wall. On these rides one sees forests of smoke-stacks belonging to the great manufactories that turn out vast quantities of silk, woolen, and cotton goods, gold and silver ware, jewelry, fancy articles and household utensils, such as are

displayed in the city's shops and are exported to all quarters of the globe.

The Thiergarten, the great public park, contains six hundred acres, partly covered by natural forest, and having several fine lakes. There are two monuments in commemoration of two idols of the German people—the beautiful but unhappy Queen Louise, whose portrait is familiar to all, and who was so cruelly treated by the conquering Napoleon; and Goethe, greatest of German writers. Beyond a canal, to the south, is the splendid Zoölogical Garden. Passing through the Avenue of Victory, we admire the cheerful, prosperous-looking men and women riding beautiful horses, or in elegant carriages, and the hosts of charming, polite, blue-eyed and golden-haired children, with their mothers or nurses under the trees. German little folks are noted for their good manners and obedience, their fine health and rosy complexion, due to simple living and open-air exercise.

On leaving the Thiergarten you notice a great stone column, two hundred feet high, surmounted by a glittering statue of Victory. This was erected to commemorate the event that Germans never forget—their victory over the French in 1870.

Through the splendid Brandenburg Gate you come into the celebrated Unter den Linden. The Gate was begun in 1789 and finished in 1793. It is built in imitation of the Propylæum at Athens, but larger. Twelve massive Doric columns support a car of Victory; the horses attached to the car stand out against the sky with a magnificent effect of action. In 1807 Napoleon, admiring the great work of art, helped himself to it and carried it off to Paris. But seven years later Berlin broke out into festal decoration, flags and banners made the long streets brilliant, and a proud and eager throng filled them to witness the home-coming of the triumphant army that, with the Allies, had compelled the Corsican adventurer to abdicate the

crown of France and retire to the island of Elba. With them the army brought back the noble group, which was speedily installed in its original place on the stately Brandenburg Gate.

The Linden-Allée is a fine and animated thoroughfare, lined with stately mansions and palaces, fine hotels and attractive shops. This fashionable promenade and drive is 196 feet wide, with carriage-drives and paved sidewalks, a broad central gravel walk, and two avenues of lime-trees interspersed with chestnuts. It extends about a mile, from the Thiergarten to the royal palaces.

At the eastern end of Unter den Linden we behold one of the finest monuments in Europe—the bronze statue of Frederick the Great, above a colossal group of figures of the great men of his reign. The pedestal is of granite, and high above all the figures is the statue of the great king, seated on horseback in his coronation robes, with a cocked hat on his head and a stick in his hand.

The grand imperial palace stands at the head of Unter den Linden, on a small island in the Spree. The palace is built around four courts and contains about six hundred rooms, through some of which visitors are allowed to wander under the care of a guide. The "show" rooms are imperially splendid, and we should like to see the private apartments of the Emperor and his family, but must be content with viewing the state apartments and the fine works of art on every hand.

All strangers are impressed with the extreme neatness of Berlin. An army of street-cleaners keeps the thoroughfares in the most perfect order possible; the numerous and ever watchful policemen see to it that no one scatters rubbish of any kind, and the only advertising matter allowed to appear must be affixed to little round towers, about fifteen feet high, standing on the street corners.

The houses are not high, as compared with American apartment houses, being seldom taller than six stories, though a very large proportion of the people live in apartments. The usual style of these houses is a six-storied building, surrounding a spacious central court. The basement rooms are rented to small tradesmen and poor families who work at home; on the first or street floor we find good shops of various kinds; on the first floor above the street live prosperous families in suites of six to ten rooms; and above this are more suites, smaller and plainer, for families who can not afford the better apartments below. There are no elevators, no steam heat; each family has huge porcelain stoves, which, when once heated thoroughly, radiate warmth for hours. This is the kind of dwelling inhabited by most of the middle class in Berlin. The wealthy merchants and nobility live in their own houses or palaces.

On the left of the statue just mentioned stands the building devoted to the two Academies of Art and Science, and close by is the great University of Berlin, with five thousand students. It was founded in 1810, with the great scientist, Von Humboldt, at the head of it. There are numerous and excellent schools in Berlin; the Germans are a highly educated people; their academies and universities are so good that students come from all over the world to attend them.

In the Royal Library in Berlin is *the first Bible* ever printed from movable type, invented by Gutenberg, forty-two years before the discovery of America. Of the two copies now in America, one is owned by J. Pierpont Morgan. Opposite the Library stands the Opera House, one of the largest theaters in Germany. There are more than twenty theaters in Berlin, of all kinds, from the home of grand opera to the concert-hall; but everywhere we hear fine music, for the Germans will tolerate no other. Nearly opposite the Library is the Arsenal, a square, massive building, 280

feet each way; it contains, among other curiosities, two leather guns used by Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, in the Thirty-Years' War.

From this Platz, a noble bridge crosses one of the branches of the Spree to the Lustgarten, on one side of which is the Cathedral, on another the old royal palace and the Old Museum. The old Schloss, or castle, was built in 1451 by the Elector Frederick II, and is almost the only ancient building in Berlin. In the Hall of the Knights stands a silver column, presented to the Emperor William I by the Army and Navy. Here, too, is a silver throne, and a grand show of gold and silver table services. We see the room in which Frederick the Great was born, and the apartments he occupied as King. The Old Museum and the new are connected, and show splendid collections of Egyptian antiquities, sculpture, and paintings. The National Gallery east of the Museum contains chiefly modern paintings.

The aggregate length of Berlin's streets is more than one hundred and sixty miles, the largest street being the Friedrichstrasse, crowning the quarter called Friedrichstadt, the chief commercial district and gathering-place of travelers. Several fine streets cross it, notably the lively Leipzigstrasse, with its handsome shops. The Königstrasse is a great artery of traffic intersecting the old town, the most crowded street in Berlin. The Wilhelmstrasse contains ministerial and ambassadorial residences, and is the most aristocratic street of all.

Two things impress us. One is the number of soldiers we see everywhere, belonging to the splendidly trained German army. They are continually drilling in and about the city. Regiments of the infantry and cavalry passing through the street are a common sight, and they march and ride superbly.

There are a great number of open-air restaurants and beer-gardens in Berlin, where large families sit,

day or evening, eat substantial meals, and drink amazing quantities of beer, while they listen to a band that is pretty sure to be playing near by.

Intimately associated with Berlin is the town of Potsdam, sixteen miles away, on an island in the river Havel. The Great Elector built up the town, and Frederick the Great gave it its modern splendor. It was his favorite resort, and in its palace his rooms are left just as they were when he died—his inkstand and pen, a green shade for his eyes, the clock that was last wound by the royal hand, all stand intact. Near by is the church where in a vault repose the mortal remains of Frederick the Great. Over that bronze sarcophagus at midnight the Emperor Alexander of Russia and the King of Prussia swore alliance against the common foe, Napoleon. In less than a year came hither that great conqueror, and, reverently kneeling beside the same sarcophagus where his imperial enemies had pledged resistance to him, he said; "Hadst thou been alive, great Frederick, I never should have been here!"

Here is Frederick's famous park, Sans-Souci ("without care"). One of the rooms in the palace at its entrance has its walls entirely set with shells wrought in beautiful designs, and mingled with amber, emeralds and rubies, the whole lighted with dazzling effect by four immense chandeliers of rock crystal.

Boston, a City of Historic Interest.

THE FOUNDING OF BOSTON BY THE PILGRIMS.

A GROUP of steep hills, on a narrow peninsula, covered with thickets and grass, peopled only by birds and wild animals, and occasionally visited by Indians, who called the spot Shawmut ("living fountain") such was the site of Boston in 1621 when the brave Pilgrim soldier Miles Standish landed on its beach. Nine years later Governor John Win-

throp's colony arrived there and founded their new city. It was first called Tri-Mountain, because of three hills on which a part of the settlement was built. Later the name was changed to Boston, after the town in England from which many of the settlers had come. Rude wooden huts with thatched roofs were first erected to shelter the Pilgrims, and a plain barn-like structure received the name of the First Church of Christ.

The town grew steadily under the rule of the Pilgrim Fathers, and the Indians, after giving the settlers much trouble, were driven into the interior. Within ten years, twenty thousand settlers came over from England. The younger men were organized into military companies and drilled regularly on Boston Common, in order to fight not only Indians, in case of attack, but undesired visitors from European countries. By 1639 these "train-bands" mustered a thousand armed men and a tall mast had been erected on one of the three hills, with an iron frame near the top in which to kindle alarm-fires to rouse the country in case of need, thus giving the spot the name of Beacon Hill. Later, many companies went out from Boston to aid the British expeditions against Louisburg, Quebec, and Acadie in the war in Canada; and the colonials, marching side by side with highly disciplined British troops, became well trained soldiers.

The houses in the new Boston were very like those in old England—having pointed gables, and lurching over the narrow walks with long, projecting eaves. The laws of the Puritan city were very strict; fast driving, playing ball, staying away from church, the criticizing of ministers, the taking of tobacco publicly, charging high prices, a man kissing his wife on Sunday—all these things were high misdemeanors in the eyes of the law-makers. There was no toleration of any other form of religion than that of the Puritan Church, and no one could become a citizen of Boston unless he were a member of that Church.

These pioneers passed away, and in time their descendants began to find fault with the way England governed her colony. In 1775 the American Revolution broke out, and Boston was the scene of many of its most exciting events, both during and preceding that conflict. The most dramatic incident occurred in 1773, when the cargoes of three tea ships, just arrived from England in Boston harbor, were thrown into the water, because the English government had insisted that the American colonies should receive the tea and should pay a high tax on it. This affair was called "the Boston tea-party," and England immediately tried to punish the rebellious citizens of Boston by closing their port, which roused a fire of indignation that became an important factor in hastening the outbreak of hostilities.

THE BEGINNING AND GROWTH OF BOSTON'S COMMERCIAL IMPORTANCE.

After the Revolution the six New England States grew rapidly, and Boston, the capital of Massachusetts, became their natural market and distributing point. So that from its first settlement Boston has been an important commercial centre. Its fine situation on a deep, safe harbor has made it a great shipping port. Besides this advantage, Boston is the principal mart of the United States for the sale of wool, shoes, and leather, and it is the business and financial center today, as it has been from the first, of the manufacturing interests of New England.

The original site of Boston was a peninsula of less than eight hundred acres, connected with the mainland by a narrow neck a mile long. The shore was indented by marshes, which have been filled in, increasing the city's area by one thousand acres, a part of which, on the Charles river, is now the fashionable residence district called the Back Bay. The limits of the old town have been extended to include East Bos-

ton (on Nodle's Island), Charlestown, West Roxbury, and Brighton, giving modern Boston an area of about forty-three square miles, within which limits live 670,-585 persons.

The city has about six hundred miles of streets. Beacon Street and Commonwealth Avenue (the latter 240 feet wide, one of the handsomest boulevards in the country) represent the beauty of Boston's best residence section. Washington and Tremont Streets are the headquarters of retail trade, and the home of the most fashionable shops; while financial affairs are carried on in State Street. There are two hundred miles of trolley lines and elevated railways, the first of the latter having been opened to the public in 1901.

The region between the districts called North End and South End is occupied by business houses, wholesale and retail shops, theaters, the city buildings, and the older hotels. In 1872 a terrible fire, covering sixty-five acres, swept over this area, destroying most of the buildings on it, with a pecuniary loss of more than seventy-five millon dollars. The district was rebuilt in a short time, however, in a style more attractive than it possessed before, although the winding ways of the old English village cow paths still remain in a part of the modern metropolis, making it an unceasing puzzle for strangers to find their way about. The new wards are laid out regularly, with broad straight streets, and vistas terminating on the suburban hills.

HISTORIC BUILDINGS IN BOSTON.

Owing to the natural beauties of her suburbs, Boston had, for some time, few parks besides the Common and the Public Gardens adjoining it; but now she possesses a magnificent park system, comprising more than 2,600 acres, including, besides playgrounds and gymnasia, a chain of parks connected by parkways almost encircling the city. In Jamaica Park is found

every tree and shrub that will grow in this climate.

Boston Common is one of the most famous bits of land in America. From all quarters come the people to rest under the trees, to listen to the band on summer evenings, to watch militia drills or baseball matches. Little children have delighted in the old Frog Pond for generations. Near it once stood an ancient elm-tree, which welcomed the first colonists and watched the growth of Boston until 1876, when it was blown down.

Among the older buildings of historic interest is King's Chapel, built when Boston was loyal to the British sovereign. It is a small but massive structure of dark stone, whose lower windows, deep-set and square, led a New-England wit to say that he heard of the canons of the Church but never had seen their port-holes before. The organ was selected by Handel, the master-musician. The interior of the church is very quaint, with high, square pews, wall tablets, and monuments, high pulpit and sounding-board.

The Old South Church is the most famous church building in the United States, though it is of the simplest architecture. Within its walls Benjamin Franklin worshiped; Whitefield, the great Methodist, preached; Warren, the hero of the battle of Bunker Hill, delivered patriotic orations; and here the indignant Bostonians assembled to protest against the tyranny of the King of England. The building now belongs to the city, and contains a collection of American antiquities and Revolutionary relics.

The oldest of the Boston churches is Christ Church, a plain building, containing queer old monuments. Its tall spire is one of the landmarks of the city. When the British soldiers had laid a plan to seize the American guns and ammunition at Concord, a few miles away, two of the Boston patriots arranged that if the King's troops should leave Boston for Concord at night signal lanterns should be hung by one of the two

friends in this tall steeple—"one if by land and two if by sea." The red-coats marched swiftly, silently, secretly, at midnight, April 18th, 1775; but the warning light burned in the belfry, and on the opposite shore a bold rider, Paul Revere, mounted his horse and galloped through the inland towns, calling "the country folks to be up and to arm."

Faneuil Hall, called "the cradle of liberty," stands near this old church. The spirited addresses delivered here went far toward arousing the colonists to revolt against the mother country.

MODERN BOSTON.

The Boston Public Library is, next to the Congressional Library at Washington, the largest and finest in the United States, and is also the largest free circulating library in the world, containing more than three million volumes. This magnificent building is in Copley Square, in the Back Bay district, and is enriched by the best decorative work of modern masters.

The schools and colleges of Boston are renowned for their number, wealth, and high standard. Foremost stands Harvard University, in Cambridge, founded in the wilderness in 1638. In Boston itself are the best of kindergarten, primary, and high schools. The Boston Latin School (founded in 1635) and the English High School occupy the largest school building in the United States. Boston University has a system or chain of allied school and lecture-halls scattered over the city. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology is a polytechnic school of high grade, where the arts and sciences are taught by a large body of instructors, aided by fine museums and collections.

In the heart of the city is the publishing centre, where the chief book-dealers and newspapers are established. Some of the best American writers have been New Englanders, and many of them lived in Boston or in its suburbs—Prescott, Ticknor, Bancroft,

Motley, Parkman, Hawthorne, Emerson, Holmes, Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, and others whose names are household words—and this fact was the chief cause of the great development of the publishing business of Boston in the nineteenth century. As early as September 25, 1690, an enterprising Bostonian attempted to publish the news in a sheet entitled *Publick Occurrences both Foreign and Domestick;* but it died almost as soon as it was born, for the provincial authorities disapproved it and suppressed it after the first issue. The first regular newspaper appeared April 24, 1704, issued by John Campbell, the Boston postmaster, under the title of *The News-Letter.* It went out of existence when the British evacuated Boston in 1776. For fifteen years it was the only newspaper in America, and yet it never had more than three hundred subscribers.

On the site of the old village market-place a town-house was erected in 1748, which was used successively as an exchange, a postoffice, and engine-house, barracks for British soldiers, and a capital in which the State Legislature met for fifteen years. Here the death of George II and the succession of George III were proclaimed; here Generals Howe, Clinton, and Gage held a council of war before the battle of Bunker Hill; here independence was born, and here, later, the Declaration of Independence was read from the balcony to the rejoicing people. The exterior of the old State House remains much as it was in revolutionary times, but the interior is now occupied by business offices.

Travelers approaching Boston, by land or water, will see, crowning the summit of a densely-populated hill, a great hemisphere of gold flashing in the sunlight. This is the point which Oliver Wendell Holmes said was "the hub of the solar system"—the dome of Boston State House, covered with gold leaf, kept ever fresh and bright. The building was finished in 1798,

the stones from which the walls were constructed having been dragged up the steep hill by fifteen white horses, one for each State in the new Republic. From the day when the conscript fathers held their first session in the new capitol, many an assembly of the "Great and General Court," as immemorial custom calls it, has ordered the affairs of Massachusetts and influenced in some degree the councils of all New England.

Cairo.

A DOUBLE CITY.

ON the banks of one of the world's greatest rivers, the Nile, in the northern part of Egypt, stands Cairo, the largest city in Africa, and the second city of the Turkish Empire, with a population of 600,000. Although it is on African soil, it is thoroughly Asiatic; the people do not call themselves Egyptians, but Arabs; Arabic is the language spoken, and the religion is that of the Arabian prophet Mohammed. Compared with Alexandria, its history is recent, yet it is the true capital of the Arabians—not their holy city, but their Paris.

Cairo was founded in 969 A.D., and was for years the residence of rulers who were called caliphs; later the Mameluke Sultans (men who had been slaves but who gradually rose to great power) took possession of it; then it was taken by the Turkish Sultan Selim and became a mere Turkish province, losing its power and importance so rapidly that it had no history of interest until 1798, when Napoleon resolved to annex it to French territory, and took possession of it after a great conflict called the Battle of the Pyramids. But he was forced to yield it to the Turks in 1801; these in turn had to give way to the Arabs in 1805, when Mohammed Ali took possession as Pasha (or vice-regent for the Turkish government) of Egypt, massa-

cring every mameluke left in the city, save one. He summoned Mameluke Beys (high military officers) to a council regarding an impending war, received them cordially, then conducted them to the high walled courtyard of the Citadel, shut in the unsuspecting officers on their superb horses—the most magnificent body of cavalry in the world—and had them shot to death. The only one to escape was Emin Bey, who spurred his charger over his slaughtered comrades clear over the battlemented walls, freed himself from his horse, and fled to the protection of a mosque, and thence into the desert.

During the rule of Mohammed Ali many improvements were made in Cairo, which were continued on a much larger scale under the administration of the later viceroys called Khedives.

Cairo is really two cities—the old and the new. In the streets of old Cairo scenes and people are observed that carry us back thousands of years into history. Oriental customs, squalor and splendor, the life of the East in all its phases, may here be seen.

In striking contrast is the new Cairo. After beholding in the old town strings of camels pacing under feathery palm-trees, and all sorts of Eastern people in bright draperies, we enter a thoroughly European-looking city. Here is a fine modern building for the Ministry of Foreign Affairs; over there is an opera-house and a French theater; farther along are elegant hotels and Parisian shops, while in the center of this section is a wonderful park, with a profusion of flowers, trees, grottoes, cascades, and cafés, brilliantly lighted at night, when military bands play and people of all nations meet in the gay promenade, the whole scene looking like a fancy-dress ball out of doors.

Leaving this fascinating scene, we return to the even more fascinating streets of Cairo, winding and irregular, and so narrow that no horse can be driven through them. The houses are very high, and are

built of limestone, or of round stones covered with white plaster, and curiously painted in bright stripes. The upper stories project far over the lower, and most of the windows are covered with delicate lattice-work, allowing the inmates to see without being seen. Very often we see the projecting story of one house almost touching that of the house across the narrow street, affording excellent opportunity for neighborly gossip.

Entering one of these houses, the first thing we find is a flight of steps leading down into the front hall, which always makes an abrupt turn, to prevent prying eyes from peeping at the home life within. At the end of this hall we pass into a large open court, around which the house is built, with its windows opening upon the enclosed space. One part of the dwelling, called the Selamlik, is used solely by the master of the house, his servants, and the male friends he entertains; the other, the haremlik, is set aside for the women and children. Everywhere are graceful arches, colored marbles, and splashing fountains; rich rugs and cushions lie on the floors, but the rooms contain very little furniture beyond low tables on which refreshments are served. There is much carving and gilding, but no pictures of men or animals, as the Mussulman religion forbids the portrayal of living things.

THE MOSQUES AND BAZAARS OF CAIRO.

Cairo might well be called the city of mosques, for almost every street has one at least. When we see that one of these has a dome, we know that it is also the tomb of some distinguished man; but all have beautiful towers and minarets, and their interiors are rich and solemn. They are usually built in the form of a court surrounded by cloisters; high arches cover deep alcoves; the alcove on the eastern side is always the "holy place," and, with his face turned toward it, in the direction of Mecca, the holy city, the worshiper says his prayers.

Many of the mosques have primary schools con-

nected with them, where young Moslems are instructed in the Koran, which is the Mohammedan bible, taught them by a schoolmaster who in many instances has no learning whatever beyond a knowledge of the Koran by heart. In recent years a few schools for girls have been conducted successfully. Cairo has a famous University, numbering usually more than a thousand students of the Moslem faith.

THE CITADEL.

The famous Citadel of Cairo, built by Saladin in 1166, on the last rocky projection of the mountain range, possesses a tower which commands one of the most wonderful views in the world. Below the citadel lies Cairo, with its minarets and palms of fairy-like beauty; at its feet are the tombs of the Mamelukes; in the distance is the valley of Egypt, through which winds the grand old river; a few miles farther away the Pyramids stand out against the sky. We gaze in awe on the busy city and the silent tombs; on the god-like Nile, and at the desolate desert. In the glory of an incomparable Egyptian sunset with its afterglow, the picture is one never to be forgotten.

Chicago.

THE GARDEN CITY.

IF there is romance in the history of commerce, surely the development of Chicago from the humble Indian trading-post, with one white inhabitant, to the second city of the United States and the fifth city of the world, with 2,200,000 inhabitants, is a story exceeding in interest anything in fiction.

The State of Illinois once belonged to the Illini Indians. Along the banks of the river on which the present metropolis stands grew an abundance of wild onions, which the Indians called *Chikagon,* whence came the name in use today.

The first white men to visit this spot, in 1673, were Joliet and Marquette, French missionaries and explorers, but they did not remain long. In 1685 a fort was built there and held by Canadian soldiers, and before the end of the century Jesuit priests made it a mission post. But ensuing troubles between whites and Indians left it desolate again until 1794, when the Indians ceded to the United States a tract of land six miles square, at the mouth of the Chicago river; and three years later John Kinzie, an agent of the American Fur Company, established himself thereon in a little hut, to exchange European goods for the furs brought to him by the Indians.

In 1804 the government established on the ceded tract a military post, Fort Dearborn, which was destroyed by the Indians in 1812, but rebuilt in 1816, when the first permanent settlement began. But in 1830 the village had made little advance, seventy persons forming the whole population. In 1833, however, the Indians were persuaded to make a treaty with the United States, giving up their domains in Illinois and Wisconsin, amounting to 20,000,000 acres. A western exodus of the Pottawatamie tribe followed; they left their ancient hunting-ground forever, and betook themselves to the Indian territory which the "Great Father" at Washington had appointed as their permanent home.

The next progressive movement was the sending by the government of a corps of engineers to the muddy little lake village, to dredge out the river and make a commodious harbor. The safety afforded by Fort Dearborn and the fine new harbor attracted many settlers; very soon the great westward movement from the Atlantic States began, and in 1837 Chicago was declared a city, with four thousand inhabitants.

THE RISE OF A GREAT MODERN CITY.

The metropolitan future of Chicago, foreshadowed by her command of the great lakes, and her water front

of thirty miles, was assured by 1852, when the Lake Shore and the Michigan Central Railways were finished, connecting the growing city with the Eastern States. Thenceforth the growth of the west was an affair of railway construction; and today thousands of miles of railways, penetrating the remotest valleys of the northwest and southwest, bring their vast freights to Chicago, whence they are shipped to the East by the great trunk-lines or by the vessels that patrol Lakes Michigan, Huron, and Superior.

Wonderful growth and success in the establishing of several great industries attended Chicago until 1871, when the most disastrous fire ever known reduced a large part of the city to ashes, sweeping over an area of more than three square miles and causing a loss of $187,000,000. Two hundred and fifty persons lost their lives, and seventy thousand were left homeless. Financial aid poured in from all quarters, and in a short time Chicago was rebuilt in a more substantial style.

The fifty-four swinging bridges crossing the river in the city limits allow vessels to pass up and down the stream; but in time the river traffic had so increased that the streets were often blockaded by waiting crowds. This inconvenience was relieved by the construction of three tunnels under the river, containing roadways and sidewalks.

An extensive water-works system supplies Chicago with pure water from "cribs," or artificial islands, constructed from two to four miles out in the depths of Lake Michigan, the supply, to the amount of 500,000,000 gallons a day, being conveyed to the city by means of five submarine tunnels.

In 1893 (May 1 to October 30) a great international exposition was held at Chicago to celebrate the four-hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus. The site selected was Jackson Park, extending a mile and a half along Lake Michigan, within which limits were erected great buildings de-

voted to the display of the world's progress in the arts and sciences. The total attendance of visitors for the six months was 17,000,000. This was the largest and finest international exposition the world has ever seen.

Besides Jackson Park, Chicago possesses some of the finest pleasure-grounds and boulevards in the country. The area of parks covers more than 2,000 acres and the boulevards extend for sixty-six miles, connecting one park with another and passing through the finest residence sections of the city.

State Street is the chief thoroughfare of the city, containing the largest business buildings and hotels and the most brilliant shops for retail trade.

The Court House and City Hall is the most imposing building in the State; it is of marble and granite and was erected at a cost of $5,000,000.

A little less than a hundred years ago there was only one mail a week to Chicago, brought in a small bag by an Indian half-breed riding on horseback through the unbroken woods. Today a huge eight-towered stone building in the heart of the city is none too large to accommodate the immense amount of mail matter handled daily.

One of the most remarkable public buildings in the world is the Auditorium, ten stories high, containing the largest theater and opera house ever built, also a great hotel and more than a hundred offices. Its cost was two million dollars.

The arts and graces of high civilization have been added to Chicago's commercial acquirements, and her educational establishments are not only large and costly, but they aid in the blending of the mixed English-Scandinavian-German-Irish-Hebrew population into a patriotic and harmonious community. The University of Chicago, founded in 1888, lies between Washington and Jackson Parks; it is co-educational and one of the leading educational institutions in the coun-

try. The Armour Institute, a richly endowed school for technical training, was established in 1891.

Chicago's manufacturing industries are second in extent only to those of New York City. The total values of numerous manufactures mount up into the millions every year, such as slaughtering and meat packing, $155,000,000; smelting and refining, $42,000,000; clothing, $35,000,000.

The mere mention of Chicago's industries suggests the two great branches for which it is famous throughout the world—its system of grain elevators and the slaughtering of animals in the vast stock-yards. The storage capacity of the elevators amounts to millions of bushels of grain, shipped from the fertile fields of the great West upon trains that run to the very walls of the towering elevators. The grain is unloaded and stored at the rate of 100,000 bushels an hour, at the top of the tall structures, where it is weighed, and later long spouts lead it down into any cars or vessels, lying alongside, that may be waiting for it.

The Union Stock Yards cover more than half a square mile of a near-by suburb, and are the greatest market for live-stock in the world. Millions of cattle, sheep, and hogs are brought here from the western plains for slaughter every year, and the yards include eight miles of streets, four miles of watering-troughs, and ten miles of feeding-troughs. All the great railways coming into Chicago have branch tracks here, and a system of gates and chutes makes it possible to unload five hundred cars in less than half an hour.

In this vicinity also are the great establishments for the packing of pork and beef, where the dressed meats we see in our markets are prepared with wonderful rapidity. In some years, more than one billion pounds of pork are packed here. Some facetious statistician has calculated that if the hogs supplying this amount of pork were formed into a procession in single file, it would reach from New York to San Francisco!

Another great industry is the timber business, in which Chicago leads every other American city, obtaining the lumber from the neighboring great forest States of Michigan and Wisconsin, and shipping it west to the treeless prairie regions.

Two thousand years ago all roads pointed toward Rome, and now, in America, it may truly be said that all roads lead toward Chicago. Her citizens say proudly that she supplies and levies tribute on all the country between Texas and Manitoba; and this great commerce is due to the railways across the plains and over the Rocky Mountains. A map of the surroundings of Chicago looks like an open fan with its lines of tracks stretching out for hundreds of miles from the Queen City of the Prairies to the far-away Pacific slope, the sunny South, and the Atlantic States.

Constantinople.

COME, let us cross the most interesting bridge in the world. What bridge is that? you ask. The Bridge of Sighs at Venice? The Brooklyn Bridge of Greater New York? Niagara's Suspension Bridge? Perhaps the Victoria Bridge at Montreal? All these are wonders of engineering, and each has its romantic aspect; but the most interesting of all bridges is found in Turkey—the floating bridge of Galata, a suburb of Constantinople. Only a quarter of a mile long, by spanning the waters of the Golden Horn, it unites Europe to Asia, in a sense, for Galata is distinctly European and modern, while the capital is purely Asiatic. The daily news of the world is discussed in Galata, but the narrow stream that divides it from Constantinople seems an inseparable barrier to European thought and customs; a hundred thousand persons may cross that bridge in one day, but not one idea passes over it in ten years, though both capital

and suburb are on European ground. Some one has said that at Galata one can light a cigar in Europe, stroll across the bridge, and flick off the final ash in Asia.

Let us stand here and watch the perpetual procession to and from Constantinople, the city that was founded six hundred years before Christ by a sailor-king named Byzas, who called it Byzantium, after himself. So much wealth was taken from the inlet of the Sea of Marmora that his people called the stream the Golden Horn. The city subsequently fell into the possession of various kings, but came under the rule of the first Christian emperor, Constantine, in 330 A.D., and remained a Christian city till 1453, when it was captured by Mohammed II, a Turkish Sultan. In these days it is a gathering-place for all the nations of earth; and now, as we stand gazing at the ivied walls of the city, with its gilded domes and minarets, rising in clustered, snowy whiteness, tier above tier, on the seven hills of Stamboul (its Turkish name), a motley multitude sweeps by.

Here come black-robed Roman priests, Turkish gentlemen, with huge turbans and gay silken draperies, and little boys in comical duplication of their fathers' attire; handsome Persians, with towering Astrachan fur hats; Jews, with long beards and yellow gaberdines; Tartars, in unassuming costumes of sheepskins; Bedouins from the desert, bristling with knives and revolvers; a train of camels, with jingling bells; next a sedan-chair, inlaid with mother-of-pearl, carried by negroes and bearing a languid Armenian lady, whose thin veil imperfectly hides her beauty. A half-naked African beggar trots after the chair, demanding charity; following him comes an Egyptian snake-charmer, with his stock-in-trade in a box, or gracefully disposed round his neck like a lady's boa; a curious bundle of clothes shuffling along proves to be a Turkish lady out for an airing, a thick veil hiding all but her eyes;

she is accompanied by her little daughter, dressed like mamma, with the exception of the veil. A clatter of hoofs and a cry of "Make way!" announces the passing of a foreign ambassador, whose outrider clears his master's path none too gently.

Now we turn from the living panorama and lose ourselves in admiration of the neighboring shores, with their multitude of carved and painted ships, through the blood-red sails of which the sun casts quivering crimson patches on the water, while it veils the distant palaces with a golden mist.

We enter Constantinople and wander through its labyrinthine streets, noting that the houses are white, brown, and yellow; that the mosques and shops are glorious with mosaic work; that every street swarms with ownerless dogs, which the Mohammedans' religion forbids them to kill, though the poor creatures never are cared for and live on the refuse of the city.

The imperial palace of the Sultan, the Dolma Bagtcheh, is of pure white marble, so vast that it seems like a small city rather than a single building. It is at the very end of the promontory on which Constantinople stands. Its chief entrance is a magnificent gate, called "the high door" or "Sublime Porte" by which phrase the Turkish Government itself is often designated.

On one of the seven hills stands the famous Mosque of St. Sophia, built by Constantine for Christian worship; twice burned and rebuilt, it was then captured by the Turks, who destroyed its Christian emblems and turned it into a mosque. Five times a day, as in all Mohammedan mosques, the muezzin calls the faithful to prayer from its highest minaret. Other magnificent mosques are the Mosque of Soliman, with a higher dome than that of St. Sophia, and that of Osmanieh, made of eight pieces of porphyry, brought from Rome by Constantine.

From the top of a hill we look down into a quarter

called Balata, where dwell 60,000 Jews, who form a portion of the million inhabitants of the capital, but are compelled to live here by themselves.

On Friday, every week, the Sultan goes to pray in one of the mosques; this is always a spectacular affair, attended by crowds of the curious and faithful. These latter wish to be assured with their own eyes that their lord is alive, for in case of his death by violence it might be kept secret by interested courtiers. So, punctually at the hour, we hear a trumpet-call, a band bursts into martial music, a company of soldiers present arms before the gates of the royal palace, a troop of lancers advances, and finally the Sultan appears, riding slowly on the back of a splendid horse with golden harness, led by two gorgeous grooms. His courtiers follow at a little distance, glittering in gold lace and scarlet. The Turks around us bow to the ground; Europeans salute him respectfully, but it is apparently not etiquette for sultans to acknowledge any salutations; for his majesty passes on, without a glance to right or left, and enters the mosque chosen for that day's worship—always a different one each day to avoid possible assassins.

Now for a peep at the Great Bazaar, the goal of shoppers from the uttermost parts of the earth. Here it is—this immense stone building, with hundreds of small cupolas to light it within. Entering the arched doorway, we stand bewildered. This is not a mere building; it is a whole city of arcades, with streets, crossings, fountains, even a mosque, and is filled with throngs of people, carriages, and camels! Every kind of goods has its own street. Here is the street of textiles, with brocades so brilliant, gauzes so sparkling with gold as to make materials from England or America suggest the feathers of a barnyard fowl among the plumage of birds of paradise. A wave of strangely intoxicating odor floats out from the heavy atmosphere of the bazaar of perfumes, impressing our senses with the fact that we are in the East.

Across the Bosporus, opposite Constantinople, is Scutari, a suburb. It contains the largest cemetery in the world, and all good Mohammedans wish to be buried there, for in Asia is Mohammed's birthplace, their holy city of Mecca.

Florence, the City of the Lily.

THE traveler journeying among the rocky Apennines gets occasional glimpses down into the green valleys of Tuscany—a vision of beauty, towards whose chief jewel he is hastening. Suddenly, against the sky uprises the enormous dome of the Cathedral of Florence, looking like pure silver in the sunlight; and around it spreads the City of the Lily, with its soaring towers and noble palaces.

Pleasant and home-like is this fair city, in spite of its thousand years of fame. Its houses stand close together, in neighborly fashion, with charming open arcades on their roofs, where dwellers may sit at eveing and gaze upon the lovely city which is their home.

Eighty years before Christ's advent, the city of Fiesole, and a little village belonging to it, stood beside the river Arno, where Florence now stands. In the time of the Emperor Nero's persecution of the Christians, many persons professing the new religion fled to the little village and settled there. In 406 A.D. it had become a city, called Florentina, and it was attacked by an encroaching people, who were defeated, as the Florentines believed, because of the appearance among their own ranks, in the midst of the conflict, of a saint bearing a red banner with the device of a lily upon it. In recognition of the saint's protection, the Florentines erected upon the spot a church which in time became the present Cathedral of Saint Mary of the Flower.

RISE OF THE MEDICIS—ONE OF THE GREATEST FAMILIES IN HISTORY.

Centuries of changing rulers, of wars, banishments, executions, and civil struggles followed, largely between the Guelphs, the papal and popular party, and the Ghibellines, the aristocrats, who desired an empire. In spite of these great conflicts, Florence rose steadily, coming to be a republic of great renown and prosperity. Here some of the greatest men ever known were born; her merchants carried on an immense trade with Europe and Asia. But in the fifteenth century the powerful Medici family obtained control of Florentine affairs, destroyed the republican institutions, and assumed ducal power and absolute authority, which lasted three hundred years. Twenty men of this family became Grand Dukes, four were Popes, and two of its women became Queens of France. Cosmo de Medici (known as the "father of his country") and his grandson Lorenzo (called "the Magnificent") were unscrupulous tyrants, hesitating at no crime; but they founded academies, libraries, and universities; set up printing presses, and adorned Florence with splendid buildings and gardens of wondrous beauty, thus helping to advance civilization.

The grand ducal rule prevailed until 1859, and in 1864, Florence was proclaimed the capital of the new kingdom of Italy, continuing this rank until 1871, when the seat of government was transferred to Rome.

HER GREAT MEN AND HER STORIED PALACES.

Of the memories of her great men, and of heirlooms of the past, Florence possesses enough to make the fame of many cities. In this city Dante, Italy's greatest poet, met Beatrice, his only love, first as a little girl nine years old, then as a blooming maiden, and made her immortal through his inspired verse; here dwelt Michael Angelo for long years, here he worked, died, and was buried. Here, also, Benvenuto

Cellini was born and did much of his best work, and here Raphael studied and painted for a time.

Like most old European cities, Florence was surrounded by a great stone wall, much of which has been demolished. The city is divided by the Arno, along the banks of which is the favorite walk.

The stone bridges that span the river add much to the effectiveness of the scene. Chief among these is the Ponte Vecchio (Old Bridge), built on the site of an ancient Roman structure. It is called the Jewelers' Bridge, because it is lined with jewelers and goldsmiths' shops. Midway of the bridge is an open space, which affords an exquisite view up and down the river; while at one point, far above the buildings, runs an extraordinary covered corridor that unites the two finest of the city's art galleries, the Pitti Palace and the Uffizi Gallery. This unique passageway springs into the air from a third-story window, runs across arches and house-tops, and through a church, and finally emerges into the other gallery at the base of a huge statue.

The Piazza della Signoria (Square of the Lords), on the east of the river, has been for hundreds of years the center of Florentine life. This square, so cheerful as we stand and look at it today, was once the people's forum and a battle ground for warring parties. The beautiful fountain near which the pious Savonarola won a martyr's crown, because of his unceasing protests against the wickedness and luxury of his day, now witnesses the peaceful weekly gathering of farmers and peasants.

East of the river also stands the Palazzo Vecchio (Old Palace), with its imposing tower soaring high above surrounding roofs. This palace was built in 1298, and was more like a fortress than a palace, for the old Lords of Florence lived here, and later the Medici family, and the building needed to be strong to resist the attacks of their enemies. When Florence

was the capital of Italy, in the nineteenth century, the Parliament sat in the Palazzo Vecchio; it is now the City Hall.

Nearby is the beautiful white marble arcade known as the Loggia dei Lanzi (Pavilion of the Lancers), formerly called the Pavilion of the Lords, as it was intended to accommodate distinguished citizens on occasions of public ceremonies. From the completion of this exquisite work of architecture in 1387, dates the real beginning of that period in the history of both art and literature known as the Renaissance (new birth), for it marked the dawn of an art as distinct and different from the old as is the modern world from the ancient. You can read more about this in Volume VII. When Lorenzo the Magnificent asked Michael Angelo to design a supremely beautiful palace for the use of the magistracy, the great master advised him to extend the Loggia dei Lanzi entirely round the square, since nothing more beautiful ever could be built. It is now a sort of out-door sculpture gallery, and contains many world-famed works of art.

Between the Old Palace and the Loggia is the portico leading to the Uffizi Gallery. We pass through a long succession of corridors where, on canvas or in marble, are portrayed kings, emperors, madonnas, saints, angels, devils, gods, goddesses, and nymphs.

The immense Pitti Palace was begun in 1440 by Luca Pitti, an officer of the state; but in 1466 he lost his wealth and station for conspiracy against the terrible Medicis. The palace at last came into the possession of the Medici family, who finished it and lived in it, laying out also the adjacent Boboli Gardens, from which, admiring its beautiful groves and fountains, terraces and flowers, we find an enchanting view.

THE DUOMO AND OTHER FAMOUS EDIFICES.

The Cathedral of Saint Mary of the Flower, or the Duomo, as it is called, from its towering dome,

rises to a height of nearly 400 feet. The erection of this superb dome was made the subject of competition, and a young artist-architect, named Brunelleschi, was chosen to carry out the design he had submitted. He reared the grand cupola that has commanded the admiration of the world and made his name immortal.

Near the Cathedral stands its bell-tower, built by Giotto, once a poor shepherd boy, who was discovered by the great artist, Cimabue, drawing the image of a sheep on a stone. Cimabue educated the lad who in later years was called the father of Italian art. This tower, begun in 1334, is covered with carving.

THE BAPTISTERY—ITS GATES.

The oldest noteworthy building in Florence is the Baptistery of St. John, which stands opposite the Cathedral, and to which all Florentine babies are taken to be christened. The chief glory of this ancient church (built in 589) is its wonderful bronze gates, designed after 1400 by a mere youth, Lorenzo Ghiberti, whose designs outdid those of many renowned artists. He labored forty years at these gates, which illustrate all the principal events of the Old Testament, each design being a finished picture. Michael Angelo declared: "These gates are worthy to be the gates of Paradise."

We must now visit the building that is called the Pantheon of Florence, the Church of the Holy Cross (Santa Croce), which was two hundred years in building, in the square in which pageants and assemblies gather; the most notable of these in these modern times was that on May 14, 1865, the six-hundredth anniversary of Dante's birthday, when a magnificent statue of the poet was unveiled. The church contains the monuments of the men whom Italy delights to honor, and four of these are among the greatest men of modern times—Michael Angelo, Galileo, Machiavelli, diplomatist, historian, philosopher, and Alfieri, Italy's great tragic poet and dramatist.

OTHER INTERESTING THINGS IN FLORENCE.

The most ancient hospital in Florence was founded by Folco Portinari, father of Dante's Lady Beatrice. There are twelve other hospitals, for sick and infirm. The members of the society known as La Misericordia (Mercy) glide about the city in black gowns with faces concealed under great hoods. This society is of very ancient origin. One of the early Florentine magistrates instituted a system of fines for public profanity, the funds from which were used to purchase litters for the conveying of the sick and wounded to hospitals. The custom flourished through six centuries, and now has been abandoned. Some members of the order belong to the highest families. They visit the sick also, and take neither money, food nor drink for their services.

Florence, like many other European cities, has many industries which attract the visitor. There are the straw-plaiters at near-by Fiesole; also the factory near the Roman Gate that produces fine porcelain; these, with the manufacture of mosaics and the raising of silk-worms, form the chief industries to-day in the city, whose population now numbers almost a million.

Jerusalem.

A CITY SACRED TO CHRISTIAN, JEW, AND MOHAMMEDAN.

ON the great central plateau that forms the backbone of western Palestine, stands Jerusalem. A dry valley divides it into two elevations, the western Zion overlooking the eastern Moriah. Zion was the city of David, the place of the palaces and tombs of the Kings; Moriah was the site of the Temple of Solomon; and the valley between the two is supposed to have been the site of the commercial part of the town. The general appearance of the landscape is still that which the termination of the Hebrew name indicates,

a double city. But, in anything except its outline, it is impossible to imagine a greater contrast than between the rubbish-heaps, covered with miserable, narrow, crooked streets, which form most of the present city, and the splendid city of David and his kings. An estimate of the population today is fixed at 48,000, more than 15,000 of which are Mohammedans, the remainder being Christians and Jews.

The peoples of differing religious faiths occupy separate parts of the city; and the whole of Jerusalem is governed by an official acting as a governor-general, subject to the Turkish rule at Constantinople.

The earliest historical record of Jerusalem is found on Hebrew tablets, inscribed about 1400 years before the Christian era, when the town was owned by the Egyptians. Later it was in the possession of a people called Jebusites, from whom King David captured it. Under his rule it rose to high importance; but its greatest worldly glory came in the reign of David's son, Solomon, whose crowning work was the building of his famous Temple. Thereafter Jerusalem was one of the greatest cities of the East; but about 600 years before the birth of Christ it was attacked by peoples—Egyptians, Assyrians, and Babylonians, in succession—jealous of her glory and eager to seize some of her almost fabulous riches. The last of these were led by King Nebuchadnezzar, who captured the city, destroyed it, burned the great Temple after rifling it of its treasures, and carried away hundreds of captives to Babylon.

JERUSALEM UNDER ROMAN RULE.

Seventy years later the Jews were allowed to return to Jerusalem, and the Temple was rebuilt. The city then enjoyed a long period of quiet prosperity, until it was seized and plundered by one of the Ptolemys of Egypt, who carried away his captives to Alexandria. Not until 165 years before Christ's

birth did Jerusalem become independent again. Then it fell under Roman rule, but still was governed by its own sovereigns, and was the capital of its own kingdom at the time of Christ's advent. About forty years after His death, in 66 A.D, the cruelty and tyranny of their rulers caused the Jews to revolt against the Romans and assume, themselves, full control of Jerusalem. But Titus, son of the Emperor Vespasian, re-captured it in the year 70, after a terrible siege; the Temple was burned, the beloved city was destroyed, and great numbers of Jews were carried into slavery at Rome.

In the year 131 the Emperor Hadrian ordered Jerusalem rebuilt; but the Jews remaining there, fearing that the images of pagan gods would be set up in their holy places, devoted to Jehovah, rebelled again and defended their city. They were once more driven out by the Romans, who finished the rebuilding of the city, made it a Roman colony, and forbade the Jews, under pain of death, to approach it.

This was the stormy history of the city called "holy" by Jew and Christian alike until—in the beginning of the fourth century when Rome, under the Emperor Constantine, had become Christian—Jerusalem became an object of especial interest to Helena, mother of Constantine. Under the Christian emperors, a long period of prosperity followed, which ended suddenly (636) in its conquest by Mohammed (under an Arabian ruler), who was succeeded by the Turks. The cruelties they practiced on Christians, and the outrages heaped upon the holy places roused all Europe. To recover Jerusalem, crusaders set forth for the Holy Land, took it by storm, and established it as the capital of a Christian monarchy which lasted until 1187, when it was overthrown by the Turkish power, which has held sway over it ever since.

THE WALLS AND GATES OF JERUSALEM.

Jerusalem is enclosed by a wall nearly forty feet high, most of which was built in the sixteenth century, only a few portions being of more ancient date. Around the walls are thirty-four towers; seven gates give entrance to the city which covers an area of a little more than two hundred acres, thirty-five of these forming the plateau of the ancient temples. There are a few open spaces, and the streets are so narrow that a carriage can not pass through a single one.

The dwelling-houses are of stone, and almost every one has a cupola, with a flat space on the roof used as a sort of out-door sitting-room. Very few of the houses suggest any traces of architectural beauty, but rather poverty and dirt.

Entering Jerusalem by the Jaffa Gate, at the time of the year when the greatest crowds of people from all countries visit the Holy Land, we may behold a striking scene. Men of all peoples and tongues are gathered, dressed in all sorts of costumes. There are mysteriously veiled women, in blue, yellow, or scarlet draperies; Turks in embroidered clothes and stately turbans; Bedouins with glittering knives in their girdles; Albanian men, looking very comical to our eyes in their carefully plaited white petticoats and gay jackets, embroidered with gold and silver thread; jet-black Africans in snow-white tunics; Syrian Jews with pale faces, and hair hanging in coquettish ringlets.

THE HOLY PLACES OF JERUSALEM.

But what is that massive square tower on the right, forming part of the citadel? We forget the crowd around us on learning that it is the Tower of Hippicus, described by very ancient historians. There seems to be no doubt that it was standing in the days when Christ was on earth. Josephus, an early historian, tells us that when Titus destroyed Jerusalem he left this tower standing, and it was the last place to yield

THE GARDEN OF GETHSEMANE, PALESTINE.—Around the garden are several shrines, and the places are pointed out where Jesus prayed, where He was betrayed, and where He was arrested. Though the *exact* locality of the Agony has been disputed, it is undoubtedly here or within the surrounding area.

when Jerusalem was taken by the Franks. There is no structure in Jerusalem which we can feel certain Christ ever looked upon except this old tower.

Passing now into Christian Street, we follow a narrow turning that brings us to one of the most interesting spots in the world—the Church of the Holy Sepulchre.

Much discussion has been held over the site of the so-called holy places in Jerusalem, and of the Holy Sepulchre in particular. Many are of the opinion that the site on which this church stands is really the place where Jesus lay after His crucifixion; while others think that the sacred place was outside of the walls of the city. On the site of the present church the Romans, in their days of paganism, had erected a temple to Venus, but the first Christian Emperor, Constantine, pulled it down and laid bare the cave beneath, which was immediately reverenced as the Sepulchre of Christ. It was said that Helena, the mother of Constantine, subsequently discovered, by a divine vision, the true Cross of Christ, and all the localities connected with His death and burial. All that is certain, however, is the fact that on this spot a magnificent Church was begun 322 A.D., and was finished in nine years, and that from that time to the present successive churches have occupied the same site, notwithstanding destruction by the Persians, the Moslem, and by fire.

In the Christian quarter of the city stands this wonderful edifice. A few rough stone steps lead down to a large open courtyard, in which is usually a gathering of people of all nations; sellers of rosaries, charms and crucifixes; scores of beggars, earnest pilgrims, sight-seers, priests—all curious enough, but the oddest sight of all is a strong guard of armed Turkish soldiers, stationed there to keep rival Christian sects from quarreling, which, without their presence, would be the case!

The church is an enormous building, or rather a series of buildings, 350 feet long by 280 feet wide; it contains seventy "sacred" localities, presided over by seventeen different sects of Christians, each sect having its own chapel.

The chief object of worship within these walls is the Stone of Unction, on which it was said that the body of Jesus was laid for anointing after being taken from the Cross. A few steps farther on is a stone indicating the spot where stood the mother of Christ during the anointing. A few more steps bring us to the Rotunda of the Sepulchre, in the center of which stands the Sepulchre itself. The dome, supported by eighteen piers, is sixty-five feet in diameter, richly decorated with mosaics, and is open at the top, like the Pantheon at Rome.

The Sepulchre is divided into two chambers, the first being the Angel's Chamber, where in the center stands a stone said to be the one the angel rolled away from the entrance to Christ's tomb.

A low doorway leads into the second chamber—the Holy Sepulchre. It is a very small chapel, only forty-two square feet in area, of which nineteen square feet are taken up by the marble slab shown as the tomb of Christ. Lamps belonging to four sects hang from the ceiling and are kept always burning. On the walls are carvings representing the Savior rising from the tomb.

The sacred slab on which the Lord is supposed to have rested is cracked through the center, and is worn smooth by the kisses of adoring pilgrims.

These are the most important features of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, the joint property of Greeks, Latins, Armenians, and Copts, who take their turns at having processions through the building, to worship at the different shrines.

In the southeast quarter of Jerusalem is a spacious area surrounded by high walls, planted with olive and cypress trees, adorned with fountains and cupolas,

CHURCH OF THE ECCE HOMO, JERUSALEM.—The Gateway of Pilate's Judgment Hall is now used as the Altar Piece of this little church.

prayer-niches and arches. In its center is the Dome of the Rock, or the Mosque of Omar, a building of exquisite beauty.

A SPOT SACRED TO DIVERSE RACES AND RELIGIONS.

This spot combines more varied interest than any other in the world—it is sacred to Jews, to Christians, and to Moslem,—for here King David prayed for his plague-stricken people; here King Solomon built that "holy and beautiful house," the Temple of the Lord, in which was the Holy of Holies, the Ark, the Mercy-seat, and all the beautiful symbols of the worship of Israel; here was erected by King Herod that splendid temple which Christ often entered; to this spot came the Prophet Mohammed after the year 70, when the Emperor Hadrian had built here a temple to Jupiter and himself; and here was erected the mosque of Omar, the real founder of the vast Arabian empire and the second "commander of the believers"—that is, Mohammedans—after the death of Mohammed. This is the spot where for ages the One God was worshiped, while all other lands were sunk in idolatry.

THE JERUSALEM OF YESTERDAY AND TODAY.

The first known explorer of the ruins of Jerusalem was the prophet Nehemiah, who, in the scriptural book that bears his name, gives a very clear account of the obstacles to be overcome there before effective work could be done. Since his day Jerusalem has been laid in ruin again and again, and explorers (ancient and modern) have searched it thoroughly. At last, in the nineteenth century, a body of scientific men organized systematic research. From them we learn that on its site one city lies heaped upon another. Jerusalem bore no less than twenty-seven sieges, the last occurring in 1244, and the explorers have had to search for not one city but many.

The Jerusalem of today may be considered the

eighth city, far below it being the city of Solomon; that of Nehemiah's time; the magnificent city of Herod; then the city that grew over the ruins that Titus made, which was followed by the Mohammedan city. Then by the Christian city; and now, for six hundred years, the modern city has stood on the ruins of those that preceded it!

A spot familiar to everyone through pictures and history is the Jew's Wailing-place, a celebrated wall fifty-two yards long and fifty-six high, of massive stones—all that is left to the Jews of their own marvelous Temple! After their Temple was ruined by Titus, the Jews used to pay the sneering Roman soldiers for allowing them to come and weep over the sacred ruins; Friday is now the day devoted to the ceremony of wailing—the worshipers standing close to the wall, kissing the stones, weeping and praying.

Many spots outside the walls of Jerusalem are as interesting as those within it. The Garden of Gethsemane, covering about one third of an acre, enclosed by a wall, is a place of great interest. Within the space stands a column to mark the spot where Judas betrayed his Master by a kiss. Gethsemane stands on the western slope of the Mount of Olives, which is the most frequented spot of any outside the walls of Jerusalem, for from this mount Christ is said to have ascended to heaven. A mosque stands on its summit, the top of which commands the most beautiful view in Palestine—an unforgettable picture, bathed in the glorious sunshine of the East.

Lisbon.

A CHARMING CAPITAL.

STANDING, like Rome, upon seven hills, backed by the ragged range of the Cintra Mountains, her numerous white cupolas and magnificent buildings towering above a mass of 50,000 houses, and

beautiful tree-bordered terraces, the capital of Portugal offers, when approached from the sea, an aspect at once charming and imposing. The city is nine miles from the mouth of the river Tagus, on which a part of it stands, but its bay forms a harbor large enough to accommodate at the same time all the fleets of Europe.

The older part of Lisbon, dating from the days of the Moorish occupation, followed by that of Spanish, has narrow, dark, and crooked streets; but the newer streets, built since the great earthquake, are regular and attractive, and contain many splendid buildings. The finest part of town extends along the riverside and has many pretty parks and squares, the most imposing of which is the Praca do Commercio, which contains a fine equestrian statue of Joseph I, the magnificent Exchange building, the Royal Library, containing 300,000 volumes, and the custom-houses. A square filled with grim memories is the Praca do Dom Pedro, bordered on one side by a great monastery and the gloomy buildings formerly belonging to the Inquisition. Leading from this square is the most popular promenade of Lisbon, thronged, after the burning sun has set, with a lively procession, the ladies dressed in the gayest of colors, with the graceful lace mantilla draping their heads, the men generally in white linen suits with broad-brimmed white hats. Street peddlers and musicians, priests and nuns, boys and girls carrying on their heads stone jars full of water, make an animated scene in the afterglow of a crimson sunset.

Lisbon owes her rise from the ashes of the terrible catastrophe of 1755 to the public spirit and genius of the greatest statesman she ever produced, José de Carvalho, Marquis de Pombal. After earthquake, fire, and flood had killed thousands and swallowed up houses and churches, the royal palace, the opera house, libraries and government buildings, destroying in a few hours the fruit of many centuries of industry, a

state of unimaginable horror and confusion prevailed. Throughout that awful period Carvalho kept a cool head and a firm grip on public affairs. He grappled the gigantic task of reconstructing the city with such wisdom that king and people obeyed him as if he were a god. He prevented the surviving people from fleeing the city, cleared the stricken quarters, and then rebuilt a city far more beautiful than the former one.

In going over the town, one finds a great number of public buildings, institutions, squares, quays and markets that owe their existence to this wonderful man. The Triumphal Arch in the Praca do Commercio has a group representing Glory crowning Virtue and Valor. Two of the statues at the sides are of Vasco da Gama and the Marquis de Pombal.

The streets run straight back from the Praca to the heart of the city; at the ends of the cross streets are bright vistas of sunlit houses in terraces piled up at every conceivable angle on the steep hillsides. Through level streets and hilly, however, electric cars bring all parts of Lisbon into touch with the center and with one another.

Occasionally the wanderer through these sunny streets comes upon a strange structure that appears like the square scaffolding of a tower mounting far into the air. It is one of the *ascensores,* or giant elevators, an ingenious method of conquering the difficulties of high and low levels in this city of seven hills.

ITS PALACES AND CHURCHES.

The capital of this Roman Catholic country contains many fine churches and chapels; it once had numerous monasteries, but these buildings, most of which stand on the hills, are now used for public purposes. The largest is in a section of the town called Belem, and was founded in 1499 on the very spot from which Vasco da Gama had embarked two years before. It is partly Moorish in its graceful architecture, and

was built of white limestone, which, with the lapse of time, has taken on a pale creamy tint, making the ancient edifice look as if exquisitely carved from old ivory. Within its walls are the tombs of the intrepid Da Gama and of Camoens, the great Portuguese poet, author of the *Lusiad.* The building is now used as a hospital for foundlings and orphans.

The largest church in Lisbon is that called Santo Domingos, built in 1241. The interior has a high, vaulted roof, supported by columns of exquisite pink marble. Royal marriages have been celebrated for centuries within this beautiful edifice, though in the black days when the Inquisition ruled the land its victims were compelled to listen to the reading of their sentences from its altar.

Few countries will reward close study better than Portugal; knowledge of the history of their nation, inspired by great writers, has made the Portuguese of today ambitious to revive the glories of the past, and had united the educated classes in a common patriotism and a desire for republican freedom.

London.

THE METROPOLIS OF THE WORLD.

WHEN the Thames river formed a lagoon in the region now covered by the greatest city in the world, the early Britons erected on its banks a rude fort, to which they gave the Celtic name Llyn-din (lake-fort). In 61 A.D. the place was mentioned in the writings of Tacitus, a Roman author, who said that "Londinium" contained many traders. When the Romans occupied the town it was called Augusta. By the time William the Conqueror took possession of it (in 1066) it was called London and was the capital of England.

For centuries a struggle existed on the part of the people of London against the sovereigns for their rights as free citizens; and these sturdy citizens always succeeded in gaining their own way. Queen Elizabeth thought the city was becoming too large, and tried to check its growth; Charles I attempted the same thing; but neither effort was successful. The city grew and grew, with but one serious check, when in 1666, the Great Fire wiped out a vast portion, wood having been used entirely in its construction. In the rebuilding of the city brick and stone were substituted for wood. The city's limits have been extended steadily. Its growth has been different from that of other cities. As the original city spread, it merged naturally into outlying towns and villages; each one of these had its own personality, which it has retained in spite of its absorption into the greater body. Thus London today is really an interesting collection of small towns, each with its own history and keeping largely its own distinctive appearences. Its total area is about seven hundred square miles, almost twice that of New York City; its population, more than seven millions.

The different quarters of London spoken of as the "East End" and the "West End" represent each the humble and the aristocratic parts of the town. Between these is what is now called "the City," really the old town of London. Once the City was a small, compact town within a strong defensive wall. It was composed of narrow, winding streets full of shops, over which their owners lived. Streets and shops are still there, but it is no longer a residence quarter and the walls were removed long ago. The city is now only a business district, in the daytime full of hurrying throngs of bankers and brokers, merchants and their clerks, at night deserted and almost as quiet as a churchyard.

THE MONEY CENTER OF THE WORLD.

The best idea of the center of the maelstrom called "the City" may be gained by taking a stand opposite the Bank and in front of the Mansion House from which space diverged seven great streets. The Mansion House is the residence of the Lord Mayor of London during his term of office, which lasts one year. It is a heavy-looking stone building, with little outward beauty, though rich within. Looking down a short street near it, we see the spire of St. Stephen's Church, a gem of architecture. Next we see Queen Victoria Street, lined with rows and blocks of stone houses; near it opens up the busy Cheapside, where stands the old church of St. Mary Le Bow or Bow Church, with its famous bells to be born within sound of which constitutes one a 'Cockney' or true Londoner. Bow church has also a beautiful steeple built by Wren. Down Princess Street we get a glimpse of banking houses; Threadneedle Street shows more banks, and between it and Cornhill rises the Royal Exchange, with its portico of many pillars, where British men of affairs meet to discuss the money matters of the world. From Cornhill springs the picturesque tower of St. Michael's Church; next, on the right, is Lombard Street, with more dungeon-like banks. Now we turn and look down King William Street, getting a glimpse of the tall Monument, which was erected in commemoration of the Great Fire of London (1666), and, at the end of the street, a statue of William III. In this heart of the city, then, diverge streets lined with banking houses and exchanges. Banks of almost every known country have their branches here. A walk through these streets makes it easy to believe that London is the financial center of the world. Facing this open space, on Threadneedle Street, is the bank of England, affectionately known as the "Little Old Lady of Threadneedle Street." It is a long, low building without windows on the outside; light and air are

obtained from an inner court. Its vaults are filled with gold and silver, more than $700,000,000 being stored there at a time. It is the only bank in England which may issue paper money, of which $125,000,000 is always in circulation. You never see a soiled banknote in England because as soon as one is returned to the bank, it is destroyed.

In the City is also the Guildhall, the town hall of London, where meet several courts. It was built in 1411. Part of it was destroyed in the Great Fire, but restored in its present form. In its large halls have for centuries been given, by the Lord Mayor, feasts of great magnificence to England's distinguished visitors and to English royalty. When the English sovereign pays an official visit to the City, he stops at a point on Fleet Street where once stood Temple Bar, a city boundary. He is met by the Lord Mayor and the sheriffs in gorgeous cloaks and gold chains, who go through a little ceremony granting him permission to enter. This is a quaint survival of an old custom of the time which we have mentioned, when there was so much warfare between the sovereign and London citizens.

It is curious and sad that in immediate contrast with this great district, the money center of the whole world, is the poorest part of all London, where thousands live in poverty, many in the utmost misery, and where the death rate is the largest in the city, caused by want of work and of bread.

A STREET RICH IN LITERARY ASSOCIATIONS.

Fleet Street, one of the busiest streets in London, takes its name from a brook which now forms a main sewer under the streets. Once there stood here a debtors' prison, which Dickens tells about in *Little Dorrit.* Fleet Street is celebrated for its newspapers, publishing and printing offices. Many literary associations hover over its courts and byways. Doctor

Johnson, Oliver Goldsmith, Charles Lamb and many others whose names will never die once walked here, hungry and cold, trying to sell their writings. They held meetings in its little taverns and coffee-houses.

On Fleet Street is the Temple. This was formerly a meeting-place for the Knights Templar; here they prayed before starting on the Crusades. Many of their effigies, in full armor, lie in the beautiful old round church, which was built in 1185. In 1346 the buildings, were leased to the students of law and ever since then they have continued as a school of law. There are pretty gardens where everything is peaceful and quiet, although within a few feet of one of the busiest spots in the world. Here many famous men have lived "in chambers." Oliver Goldsmith died in Middle Temple Lane and his tomb lies near the church. Blackstone lived in rooms below him. Charles Lamb was born within the Temple precincts and lived here. A list of the many great men who lived and studied here would fill pages. In the church, lawyers used to meet their clients and conduct business.

The Strand, so called from following the *strand,* or shore, of the Thames, once a street of palaces belonging to great noblemen, is now a busy street of shops. The names of some of the noble residents of former days have been given to streets leading out of the Strand—Arundel, Essex, Cecil, Bedford.

The new Law Courts form one of the finest pieces of modern architecture in London; passing them we enter streets full of shops and theaters until we reach Trafalgar Square, the very center of London. We admire the open space, with its splashing fountains, the noble streets surrounding it, and the fine statue of Lord Nelson surmounting a column of marble. From the Square, Pall Mall (pronounced Pell-Mell), the handsomest street in London, leads to the west. Its name was derived from the game of palle-malle, a favorite diversion with many of England's kings, who played it on the ground now covered by the street.

Club-houses abound in this street, in which the first trial of gas-lighting was made, in 1807, in a row of lamps in front of Carlton House, a royal residence. Going down Pall Mall we reach Waterloo Place, which occupies the site of Carlton House, in which dwelt George IV as Prince Regent, surrounded by unbounded luxury. But the palace was pulled down in 1827, its fittings were taken to Buckingham Palace, and its columns formed the portico of the National Art Gallery.

The next step takes us into famous Piccadilly. This street runs east and west, and is a typical London street of the better class. The houses are of every size and every style of architecture—palaces, club-houses, and small two-story narrow houses so much in vogue with English families, who greatly prefer them to the universal apartment-house of Paris. Piccadilly shows at every turn the evidences of wealth, in its splendid residences, and its fine shops, intended only for the rich. In the evening it is crowded with a gay assemblage, all sorts and conditions of men, on pleasure bent; and on a fine afternoon in springtime the long array of carriages and motor-cars, the throng of well dressed men and women, the lines of stately houses, and the greenness of Hyde Park at one side, form a brilliant picture of wealth and beauty.

At Hyde Park Corner two roads bear to the left, both leading to Kensington Garden; one is the carriage road, the other is the celebrated Rotten Row. This curious name is said to have been derived from the French *Route de Roi* (King's Road). Along Rotten Row at noon-time ride many fair women and well set-up men mounted on horses such as can be matched nowhere else.

Not far from Hyde Park Corner we find Buckingham Palace, the chief royal residence, a heavy-looking, not very attractive building on the outside, but of the utmost magnificence and beauty within. In its large

courtyard soldiers are always on guard. Here live King George V, Queen Mary, and their interesting family of four boy princes and one little princess.

Following the broad Mall leading away from the palace, we come to the open space called the Horse Guards' Parade, which we cross and pass under an arch, emerging into the great street called Whitehall. Outside the arch are always two mounted soldiers, who guard the entrance to this street, for it is here that the business of government is carried on.

Whitehall Palace is alive with history and romance. It was long a favorite royal residence, and in it lived the haughty and luxurious Cardinal Wolsey, who hung its walls with cloth of gold, and had two tables covered with plate of solid gold, studded with jewels. When he fell out of favor with Henry VIII, the King took the palace for himself, and in it he married Anne Boleyn, whom he afterward sent to the block. Here he, too, died, in 1685; and here Queen Elizabeth loved to dwell and give her grand feasts and entertainments. The Banqueting House was the scene of fêtes in the time of James I, and here Charles I dined in state. The picture-gallery contained paintings by Titian, Correggio, Romano, Raphael, Rubens and Vandyck. But from this Banqueting House, through a passage broken in the wall, Charles I passed out to his death. The scaffold was erected in the center of the building, between the upper and lower windows, in the open street, for the crowd to witness the execution. Oliver Cromwell occupied the palace after Charles I, and died there in 1658. After the Restoration, the palace was more magnificent than ever, in the days of Charles II, the "merry monarch," who loved to exhibit himself in the dance. Here he died, in 1685; and in 1688 his successor James II left the royal dwelling and the Kingdom forever, and fled to France. The palace is now a museum, but its greatest interest lies in its history.

St. James's Palace, another royal residence, used

chiefly for court functions, is a long, low, and unimposing building. It is built on the site of "St. James's Manor-House," erected by Henry VIII.

ENGLAND'S SANCTUARY.

Of all the churches in England, none is so intimately connected with her life and history as is Westminster Abbey. It is the national sanctuary. Here for a thousand years her sovereigns have been crowned. The original church was built in 616. Edward the Confessor was the first to give the foundation importance when be built a church in 1049-65, dedicated to St. Peter. In the thirteenth century Henry III undertook to reconstruct the church and through the centuries the work was continued by his successors. In architecture it is one of the largest and best in the early English style. The splendid effect of the interior is greatly spoiled by many poor and disproportionate monuments. The chapel of Henry VII, added in 1502-20, is beautiful with carvings and statues and bronze gates. To the left of this chapel lies the great Queen Elizabeth; to the right, Mary, Queen of Scotts, whom she sent to the block. There are many beautiful chapels where repose nobles and their ladies, their sons and daughters. Thirteen kings lie buried here, five sovereign queens, besides royal consorts and the descendants of kings. The heart of the Abbey is the shrine of Edward the Confessor.

In this chapel, surrounded by the dust of kings, stands the Coronation Chair, silently waiting for a king to die, that another may be crowned in it. It is a quaint, rough old chair of oak. Under the seat is the stone of Scone which is said to be the stone Jacob used for a pillow. In early days it was used at the inauguration of the Scottish kings. Edward I brought it to Westminster in 1297; every English monarch since then, down to George V, in 1911, has been crowned in the chair; at the coronation it is covered with cloth of gold.

In the Poets' Corner lie some of England's greatest poets and writers, Chaucer, Spenser, Dryden, Gray and many more. There are busts to poets who are not buried here, such as Milton, Shakespeare, and Longfellow. We may see the monuments of Pitt, Warren Hastings, Darwin, Newton, Watts, Garrick, Macaulay, Thackeray, Dickens, and hundreds of others, artists, actors, musicians, theologians, statesmen, scientists. To walk in the Abbey's aisles is to walk above the dust of some of the greatest men who have ever lived, among kings, queens and princes who in life swayed the destinies of men and of nations.

On the banks of the Thames stands the House of Parliament, erected in 1840. This handsome pile of buildings covers eight acres. The Clock Tower is three hundred and eighteen feet high; the Middle Tower three hundred feet high and the largest of the three, Victoria Tower, is three hundred and forty feet high. It is seventy-five feet square and through it the sovereign passes on the opening and the proroguing of Parliament. The great clock has four dials, each twenty-three feet in diameter; it takes five hours to wind. The great bell of the Clock Tower, popularly known as "Big Ben" weighs thirteen tons and in calm weather may be heard over the greater part of London.

There are many magnificent rooms in the Parliament buildings of which we would like to tell you, had we the space. The House of Lords is a richly decorated chamber where the English peers sit in council within handsome walls and stained-glass windows. At one end under a rich canopy is the magnificent throne of the sovereign; another lower throne on the right is for the Prince of Wales; on the left is the throne of the royal consort. The famous woolsack of the Lord Chancellor, a kind of cushioned ottoman, stands in front of the throne. At the opposite end is the "Bar," where official communications from the

Commons to the Lords are received. Above are galleries for reporters, for strangers, ambassadors, etc.

The House of Commons is a handsome, substantial, business-like apartment. Here, too, are beautiful windows and armorial bearings of the boroughs. The Speaker's seat is at one end. The benches at his right are the recognized seat of the Government Party. The ministers occupy the front bench with the leaders of the Opposition. In front of the Speaker's table is the Clerk's table upon which lies the golden "Mace" when the House is in session. The reporters' gallery is above the Speaker. The ladies' gallery above is enclosed with an iron grating.

THE HISTORIC TOWER OF LONDON.

Half a mile below London Bridge stands the Tower, a mass of ramparts, walls, and gates, the most ancient and most interesting fortress in England. Regarding it as either a prison, a palace, or a court, picture, poetry, and drama crowd upon the mind, and call us into the world of romance, as we move from the chamber that held Lady Jane Grey—hapless young queen for a few days before she was beheaded—to the cell in which the gallant Sir Walter Raleigh wrote, the steps on which Anne Boleyn, another doomed queen, knelt in prayer, and the room in which Cranmer, Latimer, and Ridley searched the New Testament together before they too were beheaded. The tower's origin, like that of the Sphinx, is lost in the mist of antiquity, before any history was written. A part of it dates from a period before the time of Cæsar, and it is mentioned in the Saxon Chronicle as having been in existence long before the Roman occupation. The building as it now stands was begun by William the Conqueror, and with its eight hundred years of historic record and its nineteen hundred years of traditional fame, it makes all other edifices seem as if built but yesterday. Three flights of steps led down

THE TOWER OF LONDON.—The most historic and impressive building in London. Begun in 1079, behind its gloomy walls transpired for centuries some of the darkest and bloodiest deeds in English history. It is now a rich storehouse of antiquities and contains the Jewel-Room in which is preserved the Regalia of Great Britain.

to the Thames—the Queen's stair, the Water-way, and the Galleyman Stair. At the Water-way rose the wide arch known as Traitors' Gate, through which all persons in disgrace were conducted within the prison, often to meet death in the inner courts at the hands of the headsman. Today the grim Tower is only a show-place, containing the Crown jewels of England and a wonderful collection of weapons and armor.

During the fire of 1666, the old Cathedral of St. Paul was destroyed, and later the present beautiful Cathedral was built by the great architect, Sir Christopher Wren, who is buried within its walls, an inscription over his tomb reading: "If thou seekest my monument, look about thee"—and surely no finer monument to mortal man could be raised. Other great men are buried here—Lord Nelson, the hero of Trafalgar, the Duke of Wellington, conqueror of Napoleon, Dr. Samuel Johnson, the celebrated scholar. The solemn interior is made more impressive by the sight of the many British battleflags hanging on the walls, pierced by the shot and stained with the blood of famous battles. The great glory of St. Paul's is its dome, which rises high above all other roofs, the cross on the top of the beautiful dome being 400 feet from the ground. We must climb up into this great dome, for from its top we can gaze upon the great city, and gain a faint idea of its immensity, realing that it is indeed the greatest city in the world. As far as the eye can see, there is a maze of roofs and towers, streets and houses, and on the Thames an endless forest of masts, on ships of all countries anchored in the London docks, which extend for miles and miles—the London dock, the East India dock, the West India dock, the Commercial dock, the Victoria dock—so that four hours' sailing does not bring one to the end of these huge monuments of human activity.

As we look downstream from Waterloo bridge, we see on the left the Thames Embankment, an amazing

piece of nineteenth-century engineering. The Thames rises and falls with the tide of the neighboring sea, and it used sometimes, in heavy rains, to overflow its natural banks and do much damage in the city. So this huge embankment was made, with a foundation of earth and a wall on top of it. The earth was leveled and trees were planted, making a beautiful drive and promenade for miles along the riverside.

Southeast of the Cotswold Hills a little stream rises in a meadow and glides toward Oxford, growing wider as it goes. It flows on swiftly to Henley where it expands into the best sheet of racing-water in England, and puts on its brightest sparkle every year for the Annual Regatta. Past mansion and busy town, the current sweeps on to the sea, widening and strengthening as it goes, till at last it reaches London, the broad, majestic Thames, pride of that great city, its magnificent and unequaled port, spanned by noble bridges binding its banks. In early days, men held sports of all kinds on the water, jousts and battles upon boats, in which they carried spears and shields. Every great house had its pleasure-barge, and the royal boats went to and fro, gay with gold and tapestry. In those days, the river was really the safest and most comfortable highway. In the dirty, ill-paved streets gentlemen rode on horseback and ladies were carried in sedan-chairs. Only those walked that were compelled to do so. Today, at Oxford and Henley, the Thames is the scene of brilliant gatherings come to witness the boat-racing of the university crews.

Twenty-one miles away from London, overlooking the Thames, stands the superb Windsor Castle, most imposing of all the royal residences. Parts of it are very old, the towers having been erected in the reigns of Henry I, II, and III. The Norman gateway belongs to the time of Edward III; St. George's Chapel is by Edward IV, the choir roof by Henry VII, and the principal state apartments by Queen Elizabeth. It

was the favorite dwelling-place of Queen Victoria, and to fit it for a modern residence it has been changed and added to by George V. Its furnishings and collections of art are unequaled in Europe, while its courts, terraces, gardens, and parks make it one of the beauty-spots of England.

Opposite this celebrated palace stands England's most celebrated school—Eton. On their own side of the river the Eton schoolboys can look up to the home of their sovereign, and can enjoy the beautiful stream equally with the royal residents of Windsor.

Coming again in sight of that immense bee-hive of human life and industry called London, we begin dimly to realize that this city is so vast that we have only just begun to get a few glimpses of it; and we are ready to believe what Londoners tell us—that if we should walk day and night for a year we should not pass through all its streets nor see all that is to be seen.

Lyons.

THE CITY OF THE SISTER RIVERS.

IN the course of his victorious campaigns in Gaul, Julius Cæsar encamped for a time near the spot where stands the present city of Lyons; on this site lived, in a settlement of rude huts, a band of fugitives who during the wars of Cæsar and Pompey had been driven from the town of Vienne (not the city of the Danube, but the one on the Rhône). After Cæsar's death the governor of that province built a town for the refugees, which was called Lugdunum. It stood at the junction of the river Rhône with the Saone, in the southeastern part of France. Under the fostering care of several of the Roman governors, it became a place of importance, rich and powerful as the principal mart for the western provinces of the Roman Empire. Temples, baths, aqueducts, theaters, and all the

adjuncts of a splendid Roman city, adorned the hill-slopes, and to the east the people could gaze over the plains at the distant Alps. Near by was the immense palace of the Roman governors, in which the Emperor Augustus spent three years while organizing the administration of the western provinces. Lugdunum, or Lyons, was made the capital of Gaul, and several Roman emperors passed much time there.

But in the year 59 A.D., a strange fate befell the city; it disappeared in a single night, as if by magic. Of this mysterious catastrophe Seneca, an ancient Roman author, wrote: "There was but one night between a great city and nothing." Very few historical allusions to this event have been found, but some historians believe that a subsidence took place in the hill on which the city was built, and it was engulfed as if by an earthquake.

Lyons was soon rebuilt, and became even more populous and splendid than before. When the empire fell, the northern barbarians swept down upon it, and about the middle of the fifth century Attila, called "the scourge of God," sacked the city, which afterward passed from the possession of the Goths to the Burgundian lords, and finally fell into the hands of the terrible Saracens, masters of Spain, who swarmed into France, spreading devastation in their path. Lyons was taken and sacked, and the conquerors rode away with their plunder, leaving only a heap of ruins. Under King Pepin and Charles Martel ("the Hammer"), the Saracens were driven back to Spain, and again Lyons rose from her ashes.

At the end of the ninth century Lyons was an independent city, ruled for a long time by the archbishops and Chapter of St. John, first as feudal barons of the German Empire, and later as independent lords. In 1312 the city was annexed to the realm of France.

The Lyons of today is a stately city, occupying the strip of land about three miles long and three quar-

ters of a mile broad between the rivers Rhône and Saone, and a part of the opposite banks. Upon the southern extremity of the central peninsula, in the district of Perrache, are railway stations, dock warehouses, the arsenal, the custom-house, prisons and barracks; beyond these are great factories, and a strong dyke which enables the two rivers to join their waters without too much disturbance. A grand promenade and review-ground, stretching from river to river, separates the Perrache district from the district of Bellecour. Northward from the Place Perrache lies the aristocratic quarter of Lyons, where in large but unpretentious mansions dwell the descendants of the old nobility. The whole population numbers 450,000.

The Lyonnais think the Bellecour public square the finest in Europe. It is certainly one of the largest, and is planted with many trees, and ornamented with basins and fountains. In this square perished some of the first victims in the terrible siege of the Revolutionists in 1793. After Napoleon had returned from his exile at Elba, to indulge in a hundred-days' dream of restored imperial power, he reviewed 15,000 soldiers in this square, amid wild shouts of the people.

Northward from the Bellecour square run three of the principal streets of the city, which mark the region of the theaters and hotels, and the finest shops of Lyons. The commercial center is in the St. Clair district. Here the great silk firms, with their warehouses and offices, are numerous. Steep streets lead upward to the quarter where toils the teeming population of silk-weavers.

SILK-MAKING IN LYONS.

Lyons takes high rank among industrial cities. Its workshops for the construction of machinery, its chemical products and its colored papers, are celebrated, but it is from the production of silk that the city derives its chief fame. In this Lyons has no

rival. The industry was brought from Italy by Italian refugees driven from home by revolutions. By decree of Louis XI of France, silk-workmen settling in France were exempt from taxes, and by the middle of the sixteenth century twelve hundred workmen were busy at silk-looms in Lyons. After the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) thousands of skilled weavers left the country, and the business languished, but in time it revived and increased, till Lyons became the greatest city in the world for the production of beautiful silks. Most of the weavers work in their own dwellings. A man with his family often keeps from two to eight looms going, the merchants supplying the patterns and the silk; much of the latter is produced in the Rhône Valley, where thousands of families breed the silkworms among orchards of mulberry trees, the leaves of which are the chief food of these wonderful little creatures. The average annual value of the raw silk imported from China and Japan, Italy and India, is about $60,000,000, and of manufactured silk exported about $76,000,000.

CONSPICUOUS FEATURES OF THE CITY.

The district of Les Brotteaux is the abode of many of the rich merchants. It was once a marshy plain, but it is now handsomely built up. It once suffered terribly from floods, but is now protected by a substantial dyke. The Monument of the Victims stands in this part of the city, commemorating the horrors that followed the taking of Lyons by the Army of the Convention in the time of the Revolution, 1793, when two hundred and nine citizens were shot at one time. The monument resembles a pyramidal Egyptian tomb.

With so large a river frontage as Lyons possesses, the quays form a conspicuous feature of the city. They are planted with fine trees and are lined with elegant houses. Thirteen bridges span the Saone, and nine the Rhône. The quays on the latter river display a

vast extent to the eye. That of St. Clair is the finest in the city. On the Quay of the Hospital one sees a curious exhibition of second-hand books, which the booksellers spread out upon the pavement for inspection. Here, too, are bird-merchants, selling gorgeous parrots, bright-tinted canaries, and humming-birds.

On the left bank of the Saone is a beautiful quay made into a promenade, with a fine view across the river of the Hill of Fourvières and its churches. Lyons has always been a strong adherent of the Roman Catholic Church. Frightful persecutions of early Christians took place here. On the spot where some of them suffered martyrdom stands the church of St. Nizier, a beautiful Gothic edifice.

The Church of Ainay has both pagan and Christian associations. On its site stood an early Roman Forum, where Greeks, Orientals, Gauls, and Spaniards met for commercial business. Here the conquered Gauls, who became proud of their connection with Rome and of their new civilization, erected an altar to the Emperor and to Rome. At this altar worship of the goddess Minerva was held. In the reign of Constantine a Christian church was built near it, a part of which is still standing.

The City Hall, next to that of Amsterdam, is the finest of its class in Europe. It was built in 1674, and consists of two grand façades and two wings. Within, all the splendors of a palace are displayed.

The Palace of Fine Arts is another noble building, containing rare antiquities and a great many curious objects connected with the Middle Ages; also a museum of sculpture and painting, and one of natural history. Its chief treasures are the famous bronze tables upon which is inscribed a speech made by the Emperor Claudius in 48 A.D. advocating the admission of the conquered barbarian Gauls to the privileges of Roman citizenship. Claudius was born in the ancient city, as were also Germanicus, and the Emperors

Marcus Aurelius and Caracalla. From earliest times Lyons has been an admired and favored city, eagerly sought for business or for pleasure, and today no place in France is better worth a visit than this, the city of the sister rivers.

Madrid.

SPAIN'S HISTORIC CAPITAL.

THE choicest section of our globe is the North Temperate Zone, and—taking it the world around—the most favored strip of that appears to lie along the fortieth parallel of latitude. Pekin, the capital of China, is exactly on this parallel; while Constantinople, Naples, and Madrid are very near it. In our own country, Columbus, the capital of Ohio, is exactly on this "fortunate parallel," while Philadelphia, Indianapolis, Springfield, Ill., and Denver, Col., are close to it, and New York and San Francisco not far from it.

But Madrid is not in all respects geographically fortunate. It is almost exactly in the center of the country, on a plateau more than two thousand feet above sea-level and on the little river Manzanares, which is so uncertain that it has been made the subject of famous jokes. Sometimes it is a rushing torrent, and at other times its bed is absolutely dry. One visitor said it was the best river he ever had seen, because he could navigate it either on horseback or in a carriage. When a certain king took a notion to walk a mile or two along it, the river bed was watered artificially to keep down the dust. When Napoleon's soldiers entered the city, from which the inhabitants had fled, they exclaimed, "What, has the river run away too ?" And when a young man who had fainted at a bull-fight was offered a cup of water he said, "Oh, give it to the river ! That needs it more than I do."

The city is at least a thousand years old, and it has been the capital for three and a half centuries. It is enclosed by an ancient brick wall twenty feet high, in which there are fifteen gates, some of them remarkable pieces of architecture. The most attractive place in the city is the Prado. This is a very wide street, more than two miles long, which is adorned with trees, fountains and statues. Here, when the weather is fine, the whole life of the city appears to be poured out. Endless streams of inhabitants, in carriages, on foot or on horseback—all dressed in their best—pass up and down, while hundreds of chairs by the wayside are occupied by lookers-on. Passing about through the crowd are peddlers who sell beans, nuts, radishes, melons, pineapples, flowers, tobacco, matches, and lottery tickets—all bawling of their wares—while gypsies, beggars, visitors from the country districts in all sorts of costumes, children, nurses, and dogs add to the picturesqueness of the crowd, and street musicians with guitars and bagpipes increase the tumult.

After viewing these scenes, one might suppose that the inhabitants of Madrid—who are about as many as those of Pittsburg, Pa.—care for nothing but frivolity on the one hand and the necessaries of life on the other. And this impression might be strengthened by the knowledge that cock-fighting is popular, and in an arena that accommodates 14,000 spectators there is a weekly exhibition of bull-fighting, six bulls being killed usually and sometimes horses and men.

LIBRARIES, ART GALLERIES AND NOTABLE BUILDINGS.

Yet the city is rich in libraries and art galleries. The National Library contains more than 300,000 volumes, that in the Royal Palace has 100,000, and there are several smaller ones. The Royal Museum has one of the finest collections of pictures in Europe, including nearly 200 by the most famous Spanish artists. It happened that some of the greatest Italian artists were

living and painting at the time when Spain was drawing immense riches from the recently discovered New World, and some of the wealth was expended for Italian pictures, which are now nearly all in this gallery.

The most notable building is the Royal Palace, which is about a century and a half old and was preceded by two others on the same spot, one of which was destroyed by an earthquake, and the other by fire. It covers five acres, is 200 feet high on one side, and is surrounded by beautiful gardens. In its museum one may see a great collection of coins, the armor that Christopher Columbus wore, and more than 2,000 specimens of arms of all ages and countries.

The city has undergone sieges, been captured by foreign armies, and been the scene of many historic events. It was originally the site of a hunting-lodge for the king in an extensive forest that abounded in wild game. After a time the forest disappeared before the woodman's axe, and for many years the plateau was a dreary plain. But it was planted again with trees that are now well grown; and we may walk out to the suburbs and find a beautiful park, where we may sit and think about the interesting piece of history that we have just learned.

Manchester.

A CITY THAT MAKES OF MUNICIPAL OWNERSHIP A SUCCESSFUL ENTERPRISE.

MANCHESTER, in the county of Lancashire, is the most important manufacturing city in the United Kingdom. It dates from Anglo-Saxon times, and was attacked and damaged by the Danes. Yet it has little of the romantic history and appearance characteristic of so many towns in England. But it is especially interesting for its wonderful enterprise in what may be called modern improvements. It is on

the left bank of the river Irwell, thirty-two miles from Liverpool; and on the opposite bank is Salford, which is connected with it by eight bridges, one of these being a single arch. The two towns have long been considered one city, and in recent years several suburban places have been included in its boundaries, so that now its population is nearly 900,000. The public buildings are remarkable for size and beauty. The Town Hall, in Gothic style, cost more than $5,000,000.

There are about two hundred churches, and those of the Non-Conformists are more numerous than those of the Established Church.

This city was one of the first to give its people free libraries. The oldest was founded by Sir Humphrey Chetham in 1662; and now, with the numerous branches, the citizens have free use of about 350,000 volumes.

Manchester is the seat of Owens College, founded by a merchant of that name in 1846. It now has a medical department and societies of natural history and geology.

The elementary and grammar schools are numerous and well supported. In municipal ownership of public utilities—so much discussed nowadays—Manchester appears to lead the world. It owned its gas works in 1807, and it now supplies gas to neighboring towns. Long ago, too, it took the waterworks from a private company, greatly improved them, and finally brought an additional supply from Lake Thirlmere, ninety miles away. It is said that the gas-works are so successful that the city lights the streets and public buildings at no cost, and makes a profit of $300,000 a year from that which is used for other purposes. An electric-light plant was established in 1893, and, like all the other municipal enterprises, is very successful.

The city also owns the street railways, and rents them to a private company. It has technical schools, to found which it spent $1,000,000, an art gallery and a

school of music. Then there are fifteen markets and eight public baths, which yield a large profit to the city.

HER VARIED INDUSTRIES; HER CANAL.

The chief industry of Manchester has long been the spinning and weaving of cotton, calico-printing, and dying. The amount of this business is enormous. Perhaps one circumstance that led to it was the fact that Arkwright and Hargreaves, the inventors of spinning machinery, were both Lancashire men. There are also establishments concerned with the manufacturing of other textile fabrics, and a very large number of engineering and machinery works. About seven hundred industries are carried on here.

But the most remarkable of all Manchester's enterprises is her canal. Her merchants and manufacturers became tired of depending on Liverpool for their foreign trade, and resolved to make a seaport of their inland town. This they have done by constructing a canal thirty-five miles long, which leads from the city to the estuary of the Mersey above Liverpool. It is twice as wide as the Suez Canal, and has a depth of twenty-six feet of water, so that large steamers reach the city, to load and unload at the wharves. There are six miles of these wharves, and ample docking facilities. Branch canals cross the city, thus seizing every advantage possible for water communication. The canal, which was opened for business by Queen Victoria in 1894, cost $75,000,000. The city furnished one third of this sum, and controls the canal.

A STRONGHOLD OF FREE TRADE.

Manchester has extensive works for burning its garbage and rendering its sewage harmless; yet it always has been, and still is, one of the most unhealthful towns in England. Its death-rate is remarkably high. This is due partly to the fact that the ground is low and flat, and partly because the work in the cot-

ton mills is apt to fill the lungs of the many workers with "fluff," which induces tubercular disease.

Not much of historical or romantic interest attaches to this flourishing modern city. In its vicinity great numbers of Roman remains have been found. In the struggle between King and Parliament, in the middle of the sixteenth century, Manchestrians sided with Parliament; but a century later they were mostly Jacobites, and they took part in the rebellions of 1715 and 1745.

Richard Cobden, the great apostle of free trade, had a business establishment in Manchester, and through him the city became a stronghold of the doctrine. For literary glory, Manchester must depend on the memory of Thomas De Quincey, one of the most famous of English authors, who was born and spent his boyhood there.

Milan.

THE HOME OF MUSIC.

NEXT to Rome, Milan is the largest city of Italy, but it is the least Italian in appearance. It has about 490,000 inhabitants—more than Cincinnati, Ohio, not as many as St. Louis, Mo. It is in the center of the great Lombard plain, so situated as to be on several lines of trade and travel. Though the city was founded more than two centuries before the Christian era, and is still surrounded by a wall, it looks like a prosperous modern-built town, and it is the financial center of Italy. In its long history it has endured forty-eight sieges and has been stormed by the enemy twenty-eight times. It suffered sadly when the Goths and Huns overran Italy in the Middle Ages, and was destroyed in 558, when 300,000 of its inhabitants are said to have been slain. The city was re-built, but was destroyed again by Frederick Barbarossa in 1162.

Once more it was quickly re-built; and then, with the aid of some of their neighbors, the Milanese inflicted a crushing defeat upon Frederick at Legnano in 1176. For three years in the middle of the fifteenth century Milan was called the Golden Ambrosian Republic; but from 1500 it was dominated by foreign powers—Spain, Germany, France—till 1796, when it was made by Napoleon the capital of his Cisalpine Republic. Austria obtained it once more in 1814, but in 1859 the Austrians were finally defeated and driven out, and Milan became an integral part of united Italy.

MODERN MILAN.

In spite of her two thousand years of bloody history, Milan shows hardly any scars of battle, though her eight miles of city wall, with its fourteen gates, suggest the unhappy days of siege and slaughter. From her name we get our word "millinery," because such merchandise once came largely from her, as it now comes from Paris. The character of the town is mainly mercantile, yet it has some notable features that show none of the prosaic marks of trade. Chief among these are the marvelous cathedral, the world-renowned opera-house, the great libraries, the art gallery, and the museums of natural history.

THE GREAT CATHEDRAL.

The city once had two hundred and forty churches; but many have been abolished, and now there are about eighty. The Cathedral, of Italian-Gothic architecture, is the largest in the world except that of Seville in Spain and St. Peter's at Rome. It was begun in the fourteenth century, and was nearly five hundred years in building. Massive as it is, the delicacy of its carving makes it appear so light as hardly to cumber the ground.

The building is 477 feet long and 186 feet wide; the ceiling is 158 feet above the floor, and the tower is

360 feet high. It is built entirely of white marble, which keeps its purity and glistens under the Italian sun. Its distinguishing feature consists of its innumerable turrets and statues. There are ninety-eight turrets, all beautifully carved; and there are two thousand statues, each one a perfect work of art, on the outside of the building, and seven hundred inside. Three were made by Canova, the modern Venetian sculptor, all of which are considered masterpieces. These represent Rebecca, St. Dasius, and Napoleon Bonaparte. The last named is of colossal size, and represents the Emperor holding a lance with which he is supposed to have subjugated Europe.

Walking about upon the roof, we may examine the multitude of spires and statues at close range. Here is a wilderness of flowers and foliage, rampant dragons and human faces and figures, all carved in stone, yet many of them looking as if they might be swayed by the passing breeze or step out from their niches. As there is no visitors' book, many tourists here have left their autographs on the stone surface, some writing merely their names—significant or insignificant—others adding pertinent quotations from great authors; and among the names are some of permanent fame; while many native Italians, not famous but full of patriotism, have here recorded their enthusiasm for united Italy. In this great cathedral is the tomb of St. Charles Borromeo, idolized by the Milanese, his body being enclosed in a coffin of solid gold.

OTHER CHURCHES—LEONARDO'S MASTERPIECE.

The most interesting of the other churches is that founded by St. Ambrose in the fourth century, which bears his name. Here St. Augustine was converted, and here kings and emperors have been crowned. In the refectory of the convent connected with the church of Santa Maria della Grazie is a famous painting which probably has been oftener repro-

duced in engravings than any other in the world. This is Leonardo da Vinci's "Last Supper." Probably every reader of this page has seen representations of it—Christ and His disciples seated at a long table, all on the farther side, with their faces toward the spectator. It is painted on the wall, and was executed about 1490. It has had much rough usage, and now it is sadly fading. The artist's original study for the head of Christ is here also—a remarkable picture. In the street there is a handsome monument to Leonardo, surmounted by his statue.

Milan has been a center of learning and science, as well as of art, and a noble building contains many of her treasures. The courtyard leading to it is adorned with numerous statues. Among the paintings is Raphael's "Marriage of the Virgin." Not far away is the colonnade of San Lorenzo, consisting of sixteen Corinthian columns of unknown age. It is evident that they belonged to an old Roman bath.

A GREAT HOSPITAL.

Milan has a fine hospital completed in 1784, when all the charitable institutions of the city were united in one fund, on which every one in need had a claim. Prince or pauper, it makes no difference—all are equally welcomed and cared for. There are three thousand beds for the sick poor, endowed by various patrons, whose portraits are exhibited once in two years in the hall of the Hospital. The endowment is about $10,000,000, and every year more than twenty thousand adults and ten thousand children are treated.

THE LARGEST THEATER IN THE WORLD.

When evening falls upon the city, the light-hearted Italians swarm through the streets, seeking various means of recreation. Chief of these is the theater, and in the great opera-house named La Scala, from an ancient church that originally occupied its site, they often witness the début of a young aspirant for dra-

matic honors or musical fame, and their verdict often makes or mars a career. Audiences all over the world are ready to approve any singer that has won the applause of the critical Italians in La Scala.

It is evident from the statues and other portraits that the most popular heroes of the Milanese are the Napoleons (I and III) and Count Cavour, because of their services in freeing, improving, and uniting Italy. Cavour was prime minister of the new kingdom, but died in 1861, soon after it was founded.

Naples.

A SMILING CITY.

A CITY of song and merriment, joy and love, is Naples, the Athens of Italy. She stands between mountains and bay; and her ranks of terraced streets, rising from the water's edge like a vast amphitheater, the splendid, sickle-like curve of her shore, and the towering cone of Vesuvius in the distance, afford a scene unmatched in the world.

THE GREEK LEGEND OF PARTHENOPE.

Naples is beautiful with the combined beauty of land, sea, and city. Nature has adorned her with lavish hand; trees and shrubs are covered with vines bearing delicious grapes, while the crowded orange and lemon trees show in summer a mass of white blossoms, and in winter the harvest of golden fruit. On the mounting terraces of the city roses bloom at Christmas, and sweet purple violets nestle in the grass. Thus it has been in this land of almost perfect climate since the days of Greek myth, when the story was told of the divine maid Parthenope, who came here from Greece on a ship guided by one of Apollo's doves to found a new city to be called by her name. In later years people from farther east visited this land and saw that it was fair to dwell in; its fame

spread, and many others set sail for the golden shore—Ionians, Achæans, Corinthians—and founded the city of Cumæ, first of the Greek cities on these shores. From Cumæ the Greek settlements extended along the coast on the great curve of the wondrous Bay to the spot where lay the fair town of Parthenope. Adjoining this ancient settlement the newcomers built one of their own which they called Neapolis (new city), later called Napoli by Italians, and Naples by other peoples. The two towns formed a sort of fraternity, with a republican form of government. The people were gentle and cultured, loving beauty and art, the inspiration of which dwelt for centuries in southern Italy.

THE CONQUEST OF NAPLES.

But Rome conquered the land at last, and in 272 B.C. Naples became allied with the Roman state, though she was allowed to retain her own laws, customs, and language. Her conquerors always loved her; the Roman emperors delighted to come here and revel in her Grecian cheerfulness and beauty, and in the charms of the neighboring islands, flowery Ischia and Capri.

In later centuries the city was captured successively by Normans, the emperors of Germany, and the kings of France and Spain. It was drawn into the convulsions of the French Revolution, after which Napoleon, then master of Italy, handed it over first to his brother Joseph and then to his brother-in-law Murat. More troubles came to the city in the Revolution of 1848 and in Garibaldi's brief but fierce fight for his country's liberty in 1860; but finally it became incorporated into the united Kingdom in 1861.

STREET SCENES IN MODERN NAPLES.

Steamers ply between Naples and all the ports of the Mediterranean, and railways connect it with central and northern Italy. Naples manufactures silk, linen, cotton and leather goods, coral ornaments, tap-

estry, porcelain, carriages, glassware, gloves and macaroni; and a busier, noisier, merrier city is not to be found anywhere.

THE GRAVE OF VIRGIL.

The Grotto of Posilippo, which is more a tunnel than a grotto, is long and dark, though twinkling lights are overhead. Overlooking the street that passes into it is the reputed tomb of Virgil, looking somewhat like the oven-shaped tombs in Pompeii. Vines and flowers grow above the grotto—a true poet's grave.

There are nearly four hundred churches in Naples, none of them of great merit. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Januarius, is the scene of the celebrated annual festivals during which the liquefaction of the blood of its patron saint, contained in vials, is alleged to take place. The National Museum is one of the most interesting in the world, containing an unsurpassed collection of sculptures, paintings, mosaics, frescoes, antiquities, etc.; included are many objects from Herculaneum and Pompeii.

From the shore one may see peaceful Sorrento not far away, with its blossomy orange groves. Taking one of the pretty white-winged boats called feluccas, we may sail to Capri. This fairy island, lying off the end of the southern horn of the Bay, is only nine miles in circumference, but it affords scenery of great beauty, variety, and grandeur, with a precipice on its south side falling hundreds of feet to the sea, over which the tyrant Tiberius used to toss such persons as were unfortunate enough to displease him. The ruins of his palace still remain here, where he passed his latter days, committing deeds of wickedness, in this period of insanity, that have become proverbial.

The Blue Grotto of Capri is justly famous; the exquisite tint of the water under the rocks of the mysterious sea-cave touches the emotions like a delicate strain of music.

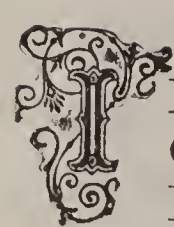
Thousands of quails alight on Capri in the spring-time, after their long flight, and are taken by net or gun for the market. With them the old saying, "See Naples and then die," is literally fulfilled.

VESUVIUS THE TERRIBLE.

Not all the internal fires in which unimaginable forces once hammered and shaped our earth into mountains and valleys were extinguished when the work was done. A few continue to seethe and simmer, and to this day they occasionally send out streams from their depths. In this country of almost more than earthly charm stand two of Nature's work-shops—Vesuvius and (farther south) Mount Etna. Vesuvius stands at the edge of the Bay of Naples. A generation of men toil and dig around its feet, like ants round the claws of a sleeping lion. Suddenly the king awakens, growls, treads to powder the tiny swarm under his paws, and lies down to rest once more. This has been the history of Vesuvius for thousands of years, as witness the ruined cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum.

New Orleans.

A DAUGHTER OF FRANCE.



IN the seventeenth-century days of warfare in Canada between French and English, a gallant French soldier, Pierre Lemoine d'Iberville, acquitted himself with so much glory that in 1697 Louis XIV commissioned him to cross the Atlantic to investigate the Mississippi region, already discovered and explored by De Soto and La Salle. He passed into the Mississippi River. After exploring the great river for five hundred miles, D'Iberville was convinced that here was the place in which to set up French domination in the New World. Among the men that ac-

companied him was his young brother, the Sieur de Bienville, who early had the idea that the curving crescent of the Mississippi bank, a hundred miles from the Gulf of Mexico, was an ideal spot on which to found a city.

D'Iberville established a fort and garrison at the mouth of the Mississippi, and a well fortified settlement at Biloxi, which later removed to Mobile to keep off any invasion from the Spanish in Florida. But while D'Iberville was planning an attack upon the English on the Bahama Islands, he died of yellow fever, in 1756, leaving his brother, not yet twenty years old, in command of the territory known as Louisiana, having been named for the French king. For twenty years Bienville cherished the hope of building up a city on the Mississippi. His dream came true in 1718, under the regency of the Duke of Orleans, through a Scotch financier, John Law, who proposed to bring France out of her money troubles by means of a scheme a part of which was the rapid colonizing and developing of the Mississippi Valley, another part being a new banking system and management of the French National debt, the whole to be supported by the French government. This scheme was known later as the "Mississippi Bubble."

For a time all France went wild over the idea, and during the temporary madness shiploads of men, money, and provisions found their way to Louisiana. From these Bienville formed his new city. When the ships returned to France their officers announced that a city had been founded on the banks of the Mississippi and had been named New Orleans, after the popular Regent of France.

Colonists continued to emigrate for some time, and Louisiana was parceled out in allotments to favored persons. Law's scheme demanded that the colonizing should go on steadily, and a serious problem arose. The immigrants so far had been chiefly sin-

gle men, and they alone could not build up a city. Wives were needed, and so the French government sent over shiploads of girls to become the brides of the lonely bachelors. By the time Law's "Bubble" had burst, several colonies had settled along the Mississippi River and New Orleans contained hundreds of citizens.

The streets of the new city divided the cleared space into sixty squares, and all these received French names. Plantations were made along the river above and below the city; saw-mills and brickyards were established in convenient neighborhoods for building. New Orleans became a center of activity and was made the seat of government. The public buildings were substantial, and many of the dwelling houses reproduced the charmingly picturesque style of the old country houses in France. After a time many French families of the higher class emigrated to the new French city and gradually a refined and brilliantly gay society came into existence, largely composed of Creoles, or persons of mingled French and Spanish blood.

The sons of these families were taught first by priests, and then sent to Paris to finish their education. For many years the daughters were educated by the nuns of a French order, who came to New Orleans expressly to teach, to care for orphans, and to nurse the sick. The Convent of the Ursulines was established in 1727, and the memory of these devoted women, who braved the greatest dangers in order to do good, is cherished with peculiar veneration by the people of New Orleans.

In 1766 France ceded Louisiana to Spain, for political reasons—greatly to the disgust of the French people of the province. Spain held it under her usual harsh and short-sighted rule until 1800, when the French again came into possession of it. But three years later the French Emperor, Napoleon Bonaparte, sold the whole Louisiana Territory to the United States

for $15,000,000, and business-like Americans went south to join the gay, careless, pleasure-loving French and Creole citizens.

The climate of New Orleans is tropical and moist, well adapted to the culture of rice, cotton, and sugar; and the invention, in the last ten years of the eighteenth century, of Whitney's cotton-gin, and of the granulating of sugar, brought about great progress in both city and State.

THE CITY IN TWO WARS.

In the War of 1812 a famous battle was fought just outside of New Orleans, the American forces being led by General Andrew Jackson, the British by Sir Edward Pakenham. The battle lasted only twenty-five minutes when the British fled, leaving behind them 2,600 killed and wounded, while the American loss was only eight killed and thirteen wounded.

Another notable event in 1812 was the arrival at New Orleans of the first steamboat coming down the Mississippi river, which marked the beginning of the immense river traffic carried on for many years between the middle Western States and the Crescent City. The only impediments to the growth of New Orleans were the almost annual overflows of the Mississippi river, doing much damage, and the terrible epidemics of yellow fever and cholera. These latter were due to inefficient drainage which has been remedied by modern sewerage systems so that there is now little danger of such visitations.

In the second year of the Civil War (April, 1862) Admiral Farragut succeeded in passing the Confederate forts below the city and captured New Orleans itself, which remained in the possession of the Federal forces until the close of hostilities. After the war the city resumed its career of activity and it is today in the full tide of prosperity, covering an area of forty-four square miles and having a population of 339,000, many

of whom are pure Americans and negroes, although descendants of the old Creole stock form the larger part of the population. Rice, sugar, molasses, are still among the chief sources of its profit, and it is the largest cotton-market in the world, handling about 3.000,000 bales a year.

NEW ORLEANS AS SHE IS TODAY.

The modern city is divided into two quarters, American and Creole. In the latter are the interesting relics of French and Spanish domination: the old cathedral, the Cabildo (or court buildings), the picturesque old convent of the Ursuline sisterhood, and an open space called Congo Square, in which the negro slaves used to perform strange "voodoo" rites inherited from their African ancestors. In the American quarter are the business streets, and many fine modern houses, surrounded by lawns, flowers, and beautiful trees of the tropics: the palmetto, the magnolia, the fig, orange, and banana trees. The two finest pleasure-grounds are the City Park and Audubon Park. In the latter was held in 1884-85 a great Cotton Exposition, which drew throngs from all parts of the United States to the Crescent City to wonder at and admire the evidences of her progress and her many beauties and attractions. Chief among the latter is the annual celebration of Mardi Gras, or Shrove Tuesday, the day before the beginning of Lent, when a carnival procession of masked revelers takes its joyful way through the streets, in gay but orderly foolery, following the King and Queen of the day, and winding up at night with a grand masquerade ball. This merry old-time custom has been observed in New Orleans since the first settlement there of the lively French society element in the eighteenth century.

The youth of New Orleans, and of all Louisiana, have reason to regard with special reverence and gratitude the names of two men—Paul Tulane and John

McDonogh. The former was a rich Creole merchant who gave a fortune to the State with which to found a university for white students, which, known as Tulane University, occupies beautiful buildings on a site opposite Audubon Park. There are, besides, four universities for colored people, supported by the State or by church societies.

Early in the nineteenth century a young and wealthy Scotchman, John McDonogh of New Orleans, won the heart of a beautiful and aristocratic Spanish girl, but her parents refused him because he was not of their religion. The fair maiden retired to a convent, and the disappointed lover renounced all society and devoted himself so assiduously to money-getting that in his old age he was called "McDonogh the Miser." In time his former sweetheart became the Superior of her convent, and once a year, on New Year's Day, the old man, availing himself of her privilege of receiving guests on that day, would go to call upon her. People thought him only a surly money-hoarder and a hater of mankind, but when he died, in 1850, it was found that he had left more than half a million dollars with which to found a public-school system for New Orleans.

New York.

AMERICA'S FOREMOST CITY.

JUDGED by European standards, the history of New York is short, but none the less it is among the oldest of American cities. Three nations have helped to build it, and three governments have controlled it. For it began under Dutch rule, was seized by the English, and finally, after the Revolution, came to be the American town that in 1789 saw the inauguration of Washington as first President of the United States, and has since developed into the

great metropolis of a great world power, the largest and most beautiful of American cities, the greatest commercial center of the world, as it is the largest in point of area, and the second in population.

Manhattan Island—the site of what we mean when we say New York, though the city spreads far beyond this long and narrow island, including the boroughs of Brooklyn and Queens across the East River, the borough of Richmond, on Staten Island to the south, and the borough of the Bronx to the north—was discovered in the year 1609 by Henry Hudson, an Englishman sailing under the Dutch flag. Presently afterward the Dutch settled on the southernmost part of the Island, naming the town that sprang up New Amsterdam. A thriving trade with the Indians soon made the settlement prosperous, and the little town grew to be a most comfortable and picturesque spot, with pretty gable-roofed houses standing in the neatest of gardens, green, winding lanes and plenty of stout merchantmen afloat in the excellent harbor.

BEAUTIFUL FOR SITUATION.

The situation was, and is to-day, magnificent. To the west flows the Hudson, a river as beautiful and stately as any on earth, guarded on the Jersey side by the stern and precipitous cliffs of the Palisades; to the south extends the harbor, dotted with green and wooded islands; and to the west, beyond the arm of the sea known as the East River, the fair reaches of Long Island with its white sand beaches and many trees. Of course in the time of New Amsterdam a mighty forest clothed the surrounding country, a forest filled with wild beasts and wilder men. But as the years passed small settlements began to be made farther and farther up-stream, until the foothills of the Catskills were attained. Quaint legends were told by the Dutchmen of these mountains. The tale of Rip Van Winkle has been made famous in Washington Irving's story.

THE ENGLISH DISPLACE THE DUTCH.

The English, however, kept crowding closer and closer to the prosperous Dutch colony, and after various disputes and some fighting, they finally took possession of the town in the year 1674, and re-named it New York. From that time until the Revolution it was governed by royal governors sent out from the mother country, and it increased rapidly in population and importance. Quite a court was maintained by the different governors; there was plenty of gold lace and many satin robes at the receptions, and very soon New York considered itself second to no other city in the new world.

AN EXPANDING CITY.

New York played an important part in the Revolution, and the battle of Harlem Heights was fought on what is now Morningside Heights. A bronze tablet in the Engineers' Building of Columbia University commemorates Washington's victory there. In 1783 the British were forced to evacuate the city, which became Washington's headquarters. It then entered upon another stage of its political development, and the Stars and Stripes took the place of the English colors on the Liberty pole at Battery Park. Since that day the city has grown by leaps and bounds. Even to-day it is increasing in size and wealth amazingly. New buildings take the place of the old ones, whole streets change their appearance, skyscrapers continue to climb higher and higher, hotels, theaters, and shops multiply month by month, subways are constructed, bridges spring into being, and if you leave the city for only a few months, you will find entire sections unfamiliar on your return.

MARVELOUS MANHATTAN.

The most striking thing to-day about New York is the aggregation of skyscrapers on the southern point of the island known as "down-town." Here the

great business interests have their homes, and to this restricted spot come thousands upon thousands of people every day to earn their bread. There was no room to spread out on land, and the New Yorkers solved the problem by spreading up into the air, putting story upon story, until, as one looks at this end of the city from a ferry boat or an approaching steamer, it resembles a mountain rather than a collection of buildings.

Nothing much more impressive in its way can be conceived of than a view of this man-built mountain range seen from the bay on a winter evening, when the darkness falls so early that business is still being done, and all the myriad windows are lighted. Perhaps a slight mist gives an added touch of mystery to the wonderful scene. Tier above tier glimmer the lights, rising far into the sky. Around your boat the black water flashes, lighted by the green and red and white lamps of other boats and ships. Across the East River the splendid arches of the immense bridges, each lighted by rows of large electric globes, glitter against the sky. And there in front, gray, huge, marvelous, the mighty buildings tower and climb, looking like a scene from fairy land. The Singer, with its crown of lights and the swinging beam of its searchlight; the World, its golden dome outlined with silver lamps; the immense Terminal Building, a maze of shining windows, and all the other office and business structures, crowding together like a group of giants. There is no other such scene on earth, and as we gaze we can hardly believe that it is the work of man.

Most of the city's tallest buildings are downtown, but the tallest, the Metropolitan Life, is at the corner of Madison Avenue and Twenty-third Street, facing upon Madison Square. The tower of this building contains fifty stories, and the top is seven hundred feet above the pavement. Half way up is the clock, thirty-six feet in diameter, whose figures can easily be

read a mile away. Enormous bells ring the hours and quarters by day, and at night, when the clock is illuminated by electricity, the light on the top of the tower, so strong as to be visible for many miles, marks the passing time by red and white flashes.

Near this building is the Fuller, popularly called the Flatiron Building, because it is built on a piece of ground shaped like a flatiron, with the rounded point toward the north. Besides these two remarkable skyscrapers, Madison Square is embellished by Madison Square Garden, built of mellow tawny brick, with arcades supported on marble pillars, many minarets and domes, and the exquisite tower adapted from the famous Giralda of Seville, Spain. In the large auditorium New York holds its horse and industrial shows, circuses, political caucuses, bicycle races; there is also a roof-garden, a theater, and a concert-room.

The Times Building, at Broadway and Forty-second Street, is a beautiful example of the skyscraper, with its great square tower, and in this section there are many more buildings, hotels, apartment houses, and offices that exceed twenty stories. But it is only downtown that they are so crowded together as to give one the impression, in walking through the narrow streets, of moving through mountain gorges between enormous cliffs.

OTHER POINTS OF INTEREST.

Beginning at Battery Park, which fronts upon the waters of the Bay, there is the public Aquarium, a queer circular building of stone that was erected in the war of 1812 as a fort. It stood then upon an island, but long since the space between has been filled in. It was called Castle Garden and Jenny Lind's first concert in this country (1850) was given in it. Later it became the immigration bureau. When Ellis Island, out in the Bay, was chosen for this, the building was altered for its present service, and a

most interesting collection of salt-water creatures lives there in the greatest comfort in the huge tanks.

Another interesting place is Fraunce's Tavern, at Pearl and Broad Streets. This was built in 1700, and Washington took farewell of his officers and aides in what is known as the Long Room, on the second floor. The little house is just as it was then, and is still used as a tavern, while the room upstairs is a museum of Revolutionary prints and documents.

The City Hall, a charming white structure in the Greek style, with wings and a central tower, stands in the park of the same name. It is now too small for the city's business, and a new building of the skyscraper type is soon to replace it. But it will be preserved in its present state as a historic landmark. Within a short distance of this Hall are many places of interest. Newspaper Row, to the east, so-called because most of the great daily newspapers are printed here in their own buildings; Wall Street, the financial center of the world; the Stock Exchange in its white marble house, the home of the celebrated "Bulls" and "Bears"; the Produce Exchange, another beautiful object; the sub-Treasury, second in importance only to the one in Washington, the depository of fabulous sums of money; and the Post Office, where more letters are handled than in any other building on earth. St. Paul and Trinity churches, the oldest in the city, are also within a few blocks of each other. This is the business portion of New York. The crowded sidewalks and the jam of vehicles, the hurry and rush, the roar of traffic, are bewildering. The new and old are cheek-by-jowl. Above the church steeples the skyscrapers lift their dizzy stories, and above the intense struggle of activity in Wall Street sounds the silver chiming of Trinity's bells. Great arched entrances lead into marble arcades that are in themselves streets, and run through most of the big buildings, lined with small shops.

THE UP-TOWN OF THE CITY.

New York is laid out with long avenues running north and south, intersected at regular intervals by streets at right angles, except in the downtown portion, where the old city of the Dutch and English régimes had its irregular beginnings. The most famous of its avenues are Broadway, Fifth Avenue (which forms the dividing line between the east and west parts of the town), and the great residence avenue, Riverside Drive, running along the bluff of the Hudson River.

Broadway travels across the island in a northwesterly direction, beginning at the Battery and extending beyond the city limits of Yonkers. It is the longest street in the world under one name. The section from the Flatiron at Twenty-third Street to a point beyond the Times Building at Forty-second Street is known as the "Great White Way," so-called because it is transformed at night into a veritable river of light by the electric illuminations of its hotels, restaurants, and theaters, and by the countless advertising-signs that blaze and sparkle all along its course. This is the amusement center of New York, where much of the town comes to enjoy itself.

Fifth Avenue is the fashionable promenade and shopping street, throughout its central part, but north of Fifty-ninth Street, where it adjoins Central Park, it is noted for its fine private dwellings and apartment houses. It begins at the Washington Arch, on the north side of Washington Square, and here a few of the fine old houses of old New York still remain, some enclosed in gardens. But above Fourteenth Street it turns chiefly to business. Some of the city's most notable clubs and hotels front on Fifth Avenue. Among these are the Democratic Club, the Union League, the University, a superb building of white freestone. The famous Waldorf-Astoria, said to be the largest hotel in the world, is at Thirty-fourth Street. It is built of red sandstone and terra-cotta in

the ornamental German Renaissance style, and though rather fussy, it makes a pleasant appearance among the cool grays and creams of the nearby buildings. At Fifty-fifth Street are the Gotham and the St. Regis, and farther down Sherry's and Delmonico's, New York's most fashionable eating-places. At Fifty-eight and Fifty-ninth streets, fronting on the plaza, with Central Park to the north, is the Plaza Hotel, perhaps the most beautiful of the skyscrapers. On the south side of this plaza are the houses of the Vanderbilt family.

The Public Library at Forty-second Street is a large and beautiful building in the Greek style, of white marble. Standing in a small park, it makes one of the city's finest sights. It was opened to the public in 1911, and is one of the largest and most complete libraries in the world.

At Seventy-ninth Street is the Metropolitan Museum of Art, a noble structure, where there are numerous collections of pictures, statues, furniture and handiwork in other arts and crafts. On the west side of the Park is the Museum of Natural History, where one may study exhibits of every sort of stuffed animal, of shells, insects, geological and botanical specimens and what not.

The Roman Catholic Cathedral, America's largest church building, is another of Fifth Avenue's attractions, with its twin steeples of white marble and its fine proportions, occupying as it does an entire block. Its Gothic loveliness both inside and out makes it one of the city's architectural treasures. There are scores of handsome churches and synagogues, and the Episcopalians are now building the Cathedral of St. John the Divine on Morningside Heights, which will be without an equal in America.

Besides the magnificent view of the Hudson and the Palisades, Riverside Drive is notable for its width, being divided by strips of parking into sections for

THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY.—One of the most beautiful public buildings in the World.

foot-passengers, horseback exercise, and vehicular traffic. Fronting upon it are the city's most splendid private dwellings and apartment houses. And at 123d Street is Grant's Tomb, a white marble structure designed like a Greek temple, and placed upon a slight rise, surrounded by lawns and approached by wide flights of steps. Within, the circular chamber forms a gallery, allowing the visitor to look down upon the porphyry sarcophagi wherein lie the bodies of the great General and Mrs. Grant.

New York has more than eighty-five theaters and concert halls. Chief among these are the Metropolitan Opera House, the New Theater, Carnegie Hall, and the Hippodrome. In the first, the city hears the greatest singers on earth and all the best operas for a season of twenty weeks every winter. The building itself is not impressive, but the auditorium is superb, and the circle of first-tier boxes, known as the Diamond Horseshoe, because of the fortunes in jewels worn by the women who sit there, is famous.

At Carnegie Hall New York hears all its greatest concerts and Philharmonic performances. Besides the large hall there is a small theater; the rest of the big building is occupied by studios and club-rooms.

RAILWAY STATIONS.

One of New York's severest trials is the difficulty of taking her immense population to and from work every day. Almost everybody lives uptown, or in the suburbs, or across the rivers, and yet comes to work in the lower part of Manhattan Island. The crush of these people each morning and evening is unprecedented and terrifying. To accommodate them are countless lines of surface cars, the elevated roads, and the subway, the latter connecting with tubes under the rivers.

New York has two railway stations, into which the trains enter underground, and by electric traction.

The Grand Central Station is still in process of construction, but when completed it will be one of the wonders of the modern city. The Pennsylvania Station, finished in 1910, is not only the largest and best appointed on earth, but also extremely beautiful, with its single and double columns, its vast entrance and its material of gray stone. It spreads over two square blocks—Thirty-third and Thirty-fourth Streets and Seventh and Eighth Avenues—and is as wonderful inside as it is beautiful without. Its trains run under both the Hudson and the East rivers as well as under and across the entire city.

SCHOOLS AND CHARITIES.

There are many other things besides those mentioned of which New York is proud. Her splendid system of public education, upon which vast sums of money are spent annually, is one of them. Every day more than five hundred thousand children and youth attend her public schools, and thousands of others attend parish and private schools. There are single schools in this great city where more than 5,000 pupils meet every day.

Columbia University, New York University, Cooper Union, Union Theological Seminary, The Seminary of the Protestant Episcopal Church, are known the world over. There are schools of art, art galleries, graduate schools, technical schools and all sorts of societies for the advancement of learning. More newspapers and magazines are printed and published in New York than in any other city in the world. Her splendid charities are almost without number—caring for the poor and unfortunate, the young and the old.

THE WONDERS OF THE CITY'S NATIONALITIES.

New York numbers more foreigners among its citizens in proportion to its population than any other city. This is largely owing to its position as the chief

port of entry to the United States. Most of the immigrants come by way of the famous Narrows through which the ships enter the harbor of New York, and a vast number of them remain where they land; efforts to scatter them over the country at large are now being made.

In the meanwhile these foreigners tend to congregate in various sections, each to his own people, and there to reproduce as nearly as possible the conditions they left behind. Some of these quarters are exceedingly picturesque. The Chinese quarter is one of the sights of the town, with its quaint buildings, its Chinese in their native dress, its fascinating shops and queer restaurants. The Ghetto, where the Russian and Polish Jews live, is enormous. It has its synagogues, theaters, butchers and markets; it prints several daily and weekly papers in Yiddish, and has its own holidays and special laws. As for the Italian quarter, it contains a greater population than that of Rome. On a festal day it presents a most interesting sight with the long religious processions, the pretty bright dresses of the women and children, the confetti-throwing, flower decorations, and singing and dancing of the younger people, and the marionette shows. The Greek, Syrian and Turkish quarters are famous for their rug, brass, and embroidery shops.

One may walk blocks through these portions of New York, and never see an English sign, or hear a word of English spoken, while every face one meets is as foreign as if he were passing through the streets of an old-world city.

A GREATER CITY!

Wonderful as the city is, it is only at its beginning. Every day sees new and splendid undertakings. Its immense population, made up as we have seen of people from all the nations of the world, is constantly increasing. To its magnificent harbor, watched over by

Bartholdi's gigantic Statue of Liberty Enlightening the World, come ships from all countries far and near. It leads the country in literature, art, and commerce, and in its financial operations. As the time passes and taste develops, it will grow more beautiful; and whatever its faults, it is at least thoroughly alive.

Paris.

AN ANCIENT AND WONDERFUL CITY.

LIKE most other cities of historic fame, Paris has risen from an insignificant beginning to its present height of power and glory. Across the broad basin on which stands the modern capital of France flows the Seine, encircling two small islands. The larger of these saw the beginning of that group of buildings which, expanding through twenty centuries, is now known as Paris. The earliest authentic history we have of its origin is of a hunted tribe, known as Parisii (or "border people"), fleeing from some enemy and obtaining from the Gauls a strip of land on which they might settle in safety. On this isle, then, these rude hunters and fishers built their mud huts and called the village Lutetia ("dwelling of the waters"). But the legions of Julius Cæsar came and conquered it 53 B.C., and thereafter it developed under Roman laws and institutions, its name being changed to Parisia in 355.

In the fifth century Clovis and his Franks captured Parisia and the whole of Gaul, changing the name of the latter to France; and in 987 Hugh Capet, one of the Counts of Paris, was elected to the throne, which was occupied for eight hundred years by his descendants, a race of powerful and vigorous monarchs, under whose rule Paris grew and flourished. Its many wars and revolutions have either destroyed or greatly injured some of the relics of former centuries, but

ARCH OF TRIUMPH, PARIS.—This is truly the finest triumphal arch in the world. It was begun by Napoleon to commemorate his great victories in 1805 and 1806. It is 160 feet in height and 146 feet in breadth and is magnificently situated.

enough remain to enable men of the present day to reconstruct in imagination much of its stirring past.

Approaching Paris from any direction, the first thing one notices is the Eiffel Tower, erected at the time of the Universal Exposition in 1889, the tallest structure in the world, lacking only sixteen feet of being 1,000 feet high. An elevator takes visitors nearly to the top of this light and airy-looking tower; and from this commanding point they may obtain an incomparable view of the largest city in Continental Europe, covering an area of thirty square miles, with a population of more than 2,000,000.

Taking warning from experience, the Parisians have surrounded their city with a fortified wall, and with two lines of detached forts; and it is now believed to be proof against any attack. Its wonderful streets are a model for all other cities; they are perfectly lighted at night, are cleaned daily, and all gutters are washed out with running water from the Seine once in twenty-four hours.

Her superb boulevards are the pride of Paris. They extend for miles, broad, shaded, lined with fine dwellings and other handsome buildings. The credit for these boulevards (of which we shall have more to say in detail) belongs to the Emperor Napoleon III, who, whatever may be thought of his character and career, certainly followed his illustrious uncle in doing much in the way of public improvements, especially in Paris. He erected seventy miles of buildings, laid out two hundred boulevards and streets, built eight churches, eighty schools, twelve bridges, the Central Halles (or markets), opened twenty-two squares, originated three new parks, and planted fifty thousand trees. While the cost of this work was enormous, it rendered property in Paris so valuable that the people, who had to be taxed heavily to pay for the improvements, were somewhat consoled.

THE SPLENDID PALACES OF PARIS.

Paris is rich in splendid palaces. The first of these began to rise at the command of the haughty Marie de Medici, and through her reign as Queen of Henri II, and as the mother of Henry III, the city increased in size and grandeur. Under the rule of Louis XIII, Louis XIV, and Louis XV, palaces, churches, and public buildings rose on every side. Among the palaces the one best known to all the world is the Louvre, occupying the original site on which, in the fifth century, stood a hunting-lodge, belonging to King Dagobert. This lodge was transformed into a citadel and prison in the eleventh century; and in the fourteenth it formed the foundation for one of the splendid palaces of that gorgeous monarch, Francis I. Succeeding kings and queens lavished money upon it, but it was not actually finished until the time of Napoleon III, who joined it to the royal palace of the Tuileries (so named because of a neighboring tile-factory.) The Tuileries was burned in the Franco-Prussian war in 1870, but the Louvre still stands, covering sixty acres, and is one of the finest buildings in the world. It contains many state departments and a great library, while its long galleries are filled with a world-famous collection of art: miles of paintings, exquisite sculptures, Greek, Roman, and Assyrian antiquities, render it the grandest monument of the ancient royalty of France and a storehouse of unapproachable splendor for the arts and sciences.

Another of the grand old palaces, the Luxembourg, is now the palace of the Senate, but was built by Marie de Medici as a luxurious home for herself. She had hardly begun to enjoy it when she was driven into exile; and this proud queen, the embodiment of greed and cruelty, died in a squalid room in a strangers' country. During the Reign of Terror in the French Revolution, the Luxembourg was a prison, from which crowds of the well-born were daily sent to execution.

The Palais Royal, built by Cardinal Richelieu and presented by him to his royal master, Louis XIII, passed from the king's possession to other royal personages, until one of the Dukes of Orleans, being on the verge of bankruptcy, erected shops and arcades around its gardens as a source of revenue for himself, thus founding what afterward became one of the most celebrated bazaars in Europe.

The vast Palace of Justice, though partly of recent structure, combines interesting traces of all the ages of French history. In the modern portion, the proceedings of the law courts are carried on, but the Tower of Cæsar is said to be part of a fort erected by the great conqueror; and Hugh Capet made the old part of the building a permanent home for himself. In the Gothic front hangs the bell that answered the summons of St. Germain l'Auxerrois to begin the massacre of the Huguenots on the Eve of St. Bartholomew.

OTHER NOTABLE BUILDINGS.

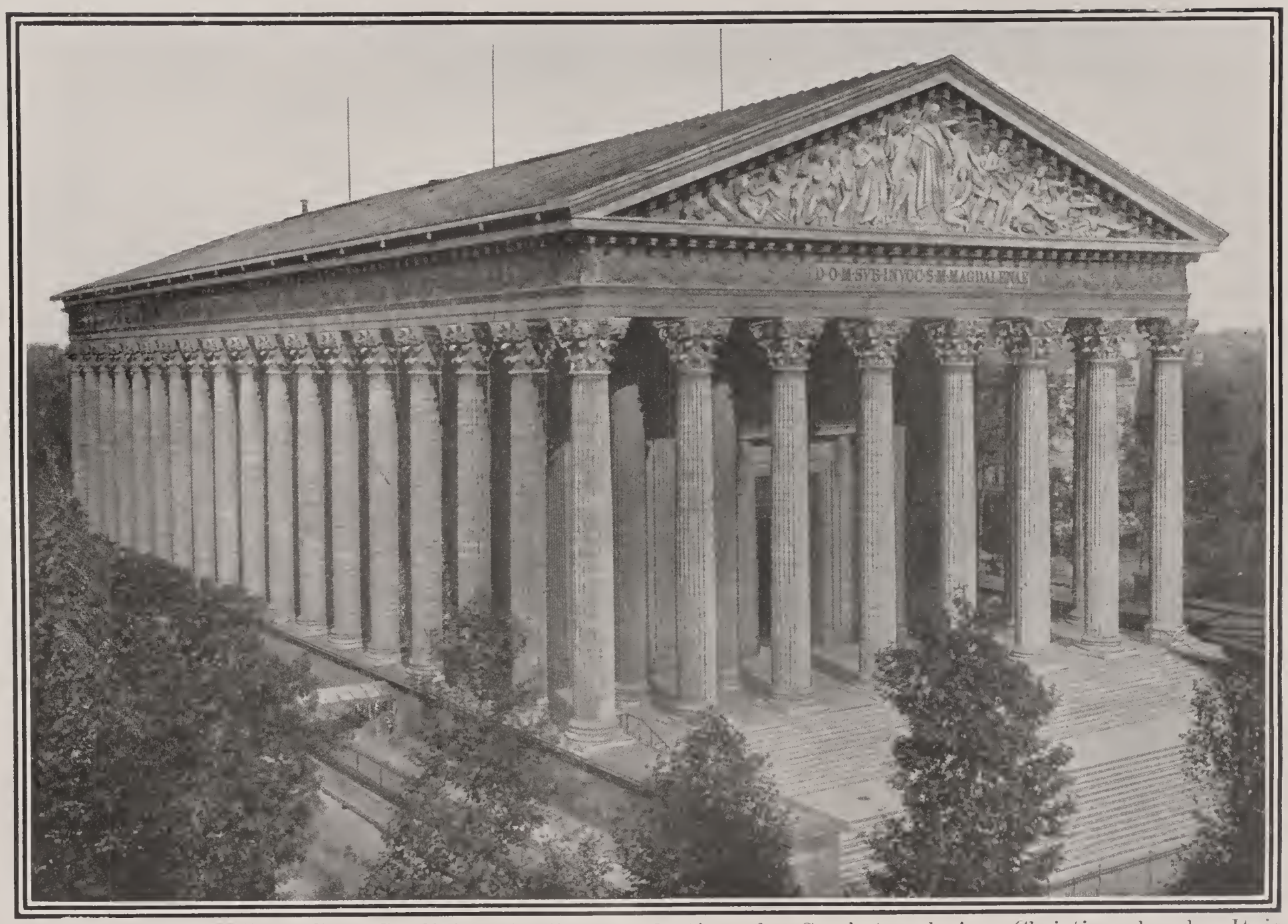
Paris is rich also in buildings connected with science, literature, and art, in museums and libraries, in schools and colleges. The National Library, occupying a building formerly the residence of Cardinal Mazarin, was founded by King John, who in the twelfth century, was the proud possessor of ten books. In the time of Charles V this modest library had increased to 910 volumes, and in that of Louis XIV to 670,000. The collection was greatly increased by the confiscation of the monastery libraries in the Revolution, and today it numbers nearly 3,000,000 volumes.

Crossing to the southern side of the Seine, we find most of the buildings connected with literature and science. On the Quay Conti is the Palace of the Institute of France, the home of the famous French Academy, connected with some of the foremost names in French literature from the time of Cardinal Richelieu, by whom it was founded. On the next Quay is

the Palace of the Fine Arts, which every year sends some of its promising young pupils to Rome, to study there the works of the old masters. Beyond the Institute is the famous Latin Quarter, with narrow streets, in which are numerous schools and colleges, the oldest and most celebrated being the Sorbonne, founded in the eleventh century by Robert de Sorbon, confessor of Louis XI. The School of Medicine represents the great medical institution founded in the thirteenth century; the present splendid edifice was erected by Louis XV. The College of France and the Polytechnic School, also in this quarter, have an equal fame.

Of the many hospitals in Paris the Hôtel Dieu, founded in the seventh century, is the most celebrated. The immense Salpêtrière is a home for the aged as well as a hospital. The Hôtel des Invalides, where old or disabled soldiers spend the evening of their lives is the most interesting of all. Until Napoleon's time it had few occupants, but that belligerent Emperor, with his ceaseless wars, filled it to overflowing. It contains many interesting relics of his campaigns. The hospital building includes two churches; one is surmounted by a splendid dome, 363 feet high and magnificently decorated, one of the sumptuous works of the age of Louis XIV, the interior being on a corresponding scale of splendor. To this edifice were brought the mortal remains of Napoleon from St. Helena, the island of his exile, to which he was banished after the European powers had decided that he was too dangerous to be allowed to remain in France. In a huge porphyry sarcophagus, under the mighty dome, quietly reposes the great Emperor, in accordance with his last wish that he might finally lie in his beloved Paris.

The markets of Paris afford an interesting and amusing study. Some of them are very old; the principal ones are the Halles Centrales, twelve handsome pavilions of iron, glass and brick, where provi-



THE MADELEINE, PARIS.—This splendid reproduction of a Greek temple is a Christian church. It is 354 feet in length and 100 in height and was begun in 1764.

sions of all sorts are sold, brought into Paris in the early morning from neighboring farms, and by the underground railways connected with farming districts at a distance. Between these pavilions run covered streets 48 feet wide and 48 feet high, intersected by a boulevard 105 feet wide. The six pavilions on either side of the boulevard occupy a space of 182 by 136 yards, the whole market covering an area of 22 acres. Each pavilion contains 250 stalls and under each of the pavilions are cellars of similar area. It is estimated that 15,000 vehicles are employed in and about the market in the traffic incident to the business.

A CITY OF HISTORIC CHURCHES.

The churches of the city represent the architecture of the Romanesque, Gothic, Renaissance, Italian, and Classic styles. The origin of some of the oldest is lost in the mists of antiquity, while others are rich with the treasures of modern art and skill.

Where the Cathedral of Nôtre Dame now stands the Roman conquerors of Gaul raised a temple to Jupiter; in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the present wonderful edifice was reared; the French kings spent vast sums of money in adorning it; and the glorious west front, with its two towers rising majestically to a height of two hundred feet, is today, as it has been for centuries, a marvel of architectural beauty.

Other historic churches are St. Sulpice, St. Geneviève, and Val de Grace, the latter built by Queen Anne of Austria in gratitude for the birth of her son, Louis XIV, after she had been married twenty-two years without children. The cornerstone of Val de Grace was laid by Louis, a little boy of seven, who was very proud of his first performance with the silver trowel.

THE SQUARES, BOULEVARDS AND PARKS OF PARIS.

It is not only by means of her palaces and churches that Paris works her charming spell upon us. Parisians delight to live in the open air, and their prome-

nades and gardens, boulevards and commercial streets, form brilliant tableaux of the national life of today as well as enduring monuments of the past.

Looking directly north from the Eiffel Tower, one sees an immense and beautiful square, the Place de la Concorde. Within that space stood the guillotine on which many victims met their death. Here perished Louis XVI, and his lovely queen, Marie Antoinette, whose fate was shared the following year by the very man that had incited the French people to revolt. Two beautiful fountains adorn this Place, and in the center stands an enormous red syenite obelisk, set up by Sesostris in front of a temple in Thebes, 1500 years before the birth of Christ, which Louis Philippe brought to Paris in 1836 and erected on its present pedestal of Brittany granite.

The Champs Elysées (Elysian Fields), with the broad avenue leading away from the Place de la Concorde, form one of the most attractive parts of Paris. Along the smooth walks gay crowds wander, or sit in open-air cafés and restaurants under the trees. In the groves, jugglers, Punch-and-Judy shows and merry-go-rounds delight the children; and at night, when the long line of electric lights stretches to the Arch of Triumph of the Star, erected by Napoleon I to commemorate a great victory; when the cafés amid the trees are illumined and filled with music and gayety, the scene is very brilliant.

The Champ de Mars (named for the god of war) is one of the most famous open-air spaces, as the scene of great military reviews and the site of the Universal Exposition. Here Napoleon, before the Battle of Waterloo, the beginning of the end of his wonderful career, held his last grand review of the French army.

The Park de Monceau is a perfect gem of gardening, an enchanting pleasure-ground, with a profusion of exotic plants, shady paths, a winding stream, and picturesque bridges.

The section that would be called "the shopping district" by American women is indeed a region of fascinating wonders. The windows along the Rue de la Paix alone are like exhibits in a national fair; one sees the most exquisite articles of dress, jewelry, and decoration, arranged with rare skill and taste.

The many boulevards present the gayest scenes of out-of-door life. The Boulevard des Italiens, near the magnificent Italian Opera House, the handsomest theater in the world, is the most fashionable, but the Boulevard Montmartre is the gayest and the most typically French. The air of thorough enjoyment of life, characteristic of the French, is at the highest pitch among this laughing, chattering throng.

At the end of the Boulevard Beaumarchais is the Place de la Bastille, the site of the ancient prison in the cells of which were confined many wretched victims of state intrigue or jealousy. But on July 14, 1789, fifty thousand Parisians, of "the people," armed with twenty cannon, attacked the prison, rushed in, and liberated the prisoners. The Fall of the Bastille is celebrated annually throughout France.

THE RIVER SEINE.

Let us turn from boulevards and buildings to the silent highway that flows across Paris—the Seine, friend and companion of every Parisian, beloved as is "Father Tiber" by the Romans, and much more attractive, as it winds its sparkling way through the heart of the city. It is banked by miles of quays, built by Louis XIII and Louis XIV and greatly extended by Napoleon. Twenty-five bridges span the stream, some dating from the fifteenth century.

On the river-bank of the Isle of the City stands the Morgue (an old French word meaning "the face"), where, on marble slabs, dead bodies found in the streets or the river are exposed to view for identification. It is a ghastly place, but hundreds of people visit it every week.

Of the cemeteries of Paris, the most celebrated is Père la Chaise, named for the confessor of Louis XIV. Since 1785, in order to relieve the cemeteries of their overflowing population of the dead, 7,000,000 skulls and bones from the old burial-grounds have been taken to the Catacombs, underground caverns of great antiquity in the southern part of Paris, of which more than two hundred acres have been explored, though their origin is lost in the obscurity of the past. Walls of skulls, and ornamental designs made of joints and vertebræ, meet the eye in every direction.

THE SURROUNDING COUNTRY.

Outside the walls of Paris are many spots of great beauty and historic interest. Foremost comes Versailles, with its grand palace and gardens, erected by Louis XIV at great cost, necessitating heavy taxation of the working people and hastening the coming of their revolt. Its splendid drawing-rooms and private apartments, its vast collections of pictures and statues, its terraces, orangeries, bowers, lakes, and marvelous fountains, which attract thousands to this magnificent home of "the grand monarch," are too numerous to describe in detail. An innumerable train also of kings and queens, poets and wits, courtiers and lovely women, have passed through these halls. Here a brilliant throng clustered round the gay Marie Antoinette, among them the young Marquis de Lafayette, and his friend the wise American, Benjamin Franklin, sent to the Court of France to represent the new republic of the United States of America. But a long-threatening storm gathered and broke over the glittering palace; a ferocious mob carried the King and Queen to prison, and Versailles ceased to be a royal residence. In later years it was repaired and made into a grand historical museum, as beautiful as ever.

Such is Paris—an endless study, and endless delight; gay yet mournful; flower-strewn and blood-

stained; the home of peaceful arts and science, and the scene of bloody revolutions, where every street has a history and every history a moral.

Pekin.

A CITY THREE THOUSAND YEARS OLD.

ACCORDING to Chinese historians, some sort of city has existed for three thousand years on the site of Pekin. Marco Polo tells us that in the thirteenth century this carefully guarded and mysterious city was large and splendid. But the world knew very little of it until, in 1860, English and French troops marched through the gates and dictated to the Emperor's representative the terms that began a new era in the dealings of the Chinese Empire with the outside world.

In the seventeenth century Pekin fell, through treachery, into the hands of rebel desperadoes. The Emperor committed hara-kiri. The General-in-chief called upon the Tartars in Manchuria to help in ridding Pekin of the rebels. The Manchus responded promptly, ejected the rebels and restored order; but instead of returning to Manchuria they decided to settle in Pekin themselves and elected one of their own dignitaries to the vacant throne. The adherents of the former monarch made strenuous efforts to drive out the invaders, but the latter finally subdued the the whole empire and forced the population to adopt the shaved head and long queue, as a symbol of submission to Tartar sovereignty. Manchurian sovereigns have occupied the imperial city ever since.

Pekin is formed of two distinct cities, each with its own walls and fortifications. The Chinese, or southern city, covers fifteen square miles; north of it, and connected with it by gateways, the Tartar city covers an area of twelve square miles. But the four-

sided Tartar city contains another enclosure, the yellow or Imperial City, set apart for great dignitaries and the imperial pleasure-grounds. And within this there is still another walled enclosure, the Red or Imperial City, containing only the palaces of the Emperor and of his immediate retainers.

There are no hills near Pekin, but a good view of the city may be had from the top of the lofty wall, showing a panorama strange to us. The principal street of the Tartar City presents a lively scene. The shops are elaborately carved and gilded; small booths and eating-houses are numerous, as well as cook-shops; priests in yellow robes, serious merchants and scholars, charcoal-sellers and beggars, pass along; and occasionally a great mandarin comes by riding in a sedan-chair, with attendant couriers. Very few women are seen, except of the humblest class.

The most revered building is the Temple of Confucius, a rich and beautiful edifice to which the Emperor goes to pray for his people. Opposite is the great Buddhist temple and monastery, in which is an image of Buddha, sixty feet high.

The largest pagoda stands on an island in one of the city's two lakes. In it are 10,000 small images of Buddha, ranged round the walls, and one image seventy feet high, with a thousand arms and a thousand legs.

The Chinese part of Pekin is much more crowded than the Tartar section, and not so aristocratic. It has no palaces, and only a few fairly wide streets; the remainder is a tangle of winding, narrow lanes and alleys full of interesting life. The central street looks like a fair; cooks and blacksmiths ply their trades in the noisy street; carriages, mules, horses, sedan-chairs, and wheelbarrows fill the narrow paths; barbers shave heads and adjust queues on the sidewalk; story-tellers, quack doctors, and conjurers attract the passing crowd; the noise of buying and selling, bawling and laughing, makes a very Babel.

A Busy Section of the Market District in Peking.

The sacred building here is the Vault and Altar of Heaven, two large circular altars, one of which is the Pagoda of the Vault of Heaven, with three roofs of a deep blue color, ninety-nine feet high. Gods are represented on tablets, and are worshiped at different seasons. The Altar of Heaven has no roof, but has an enormous furnace, for the sacrifice of bullocks. Here, too, the Emperor offers prayer to the Supreme Being once a year.

The population of the two cities amounts to 1,600,000. One might think disorder must be common in these crowded streets, but in every Chinese town and city the police are highly efficient, and use whips on any person that trangresses law or breaks the peace. Watchmen patrol the city all night long, and the streets are closed after a certain hour, no one being allowed to pass without good reason. The Chinese like these regulations for their safety, a paternal government suiting them.

Philadelphia.

THE QUAKER CITY.

IN October of the year 1682 the English Quaker William Penn reached American shores. His father had been a naval officer and had performed many services for Charles II of England, who owed him sixteen thousand pounds. At his father's death, young Penn proposed to the King that a large tract of land on the Delaware river, in America, should be given to him in place of the money, with which proposal the King was glad to comply. Accordingly the new owner of Pennsylvania ("Penn's Woods") sent out a company of emigrants to America, with instructions as to the founding of a new city, in which he and his Quaker friends could live in the practice of the religion for which they were persecuted in England. On his arrival the following year he found that his

own new town had been well laid out on a most favorable site, and was growing steadily. In 1683 he invited the Dutch and German pioneers, who had preceded him and were living in Delaware, to come to his city, and they settled in Germantown, now one of the city wards, and among the finest of its residence sections. These new citizens were notable from the fact that they made the first public protest in America against the holding of slaves; that one of them built the first paper-mill in America; and that Sower, a German printer, printed in that language three editions of the Bible before any English edition was printed in this country.

Penn's love for his fellow-men extended to the Indians, with whom he soon arranged a meeting at which a treaty of peace was made between them under a large elm-tree near the middle of the new city—a treaty that was always kept by Penn and his red brethren in the city that he named Philadelphia ("brotherly love"). Twenty years later the town had four thousand inhabitants: profitable industries had been founded, and the peace-loving Quakers began to grow rich. By the middle of the eighteenth century a refined and cultured society had developed under the influence of William Penn and Benjamin Franklin, and the study of science found here its warmest welcome in the New World.

Philadelphia stoutly resisted British aggression from 1763 to 1764. In 1774 the First Continental Congress met there, and in 1776, in the State House, George Washington was appointed General and Commander-in-chief of the American army. Philadelphia was then the capital of the united colonies, but the seat of government was transferred in 1789. It is now the metropolis of Pennsylvania and the third city of the United States, with a population of 1,500,000. It occupies both sides of the Schuylkill river near its junction with the Delaware, covering, with its suburbs,

an area of 132 square miles, with more than 1,500 miles of streets. It is one of the most heathful of cities, owing to its fine site, and its plentiful water-supply from the two rivers. There are more dwelling-houses in proportion to the population than in any other American city. Most of these are in blocks of plain brick buildings, with white window shutters, and low steps and trimmings of white marble, giving a somewhat monotonous appearance to the residence streets.

THE CITY'S MANY ATTRACTIONS.

Chestnut Street is the most brilliant and interesting thoroughfare in the city, one of the typical streets of America, the grand promenade of the leisurely classes. Its sobriety of life and the Quaker dress, bequeathed by Penn to his city, still remain as an evident influence, even amid the luxuries of the modern metropolis, and life is quieter and less hurried there than in other great American cities. On and near Chestnut Street are the great hotels and the most popular shops.

The old Meeting-house of the Friends, surrounded by trees and hidden by brick walls, stands like an isle of peace amid the busy life of the commercial quarter. There are several other Friends' meeting-houses in the city.

The most famous building in Philadelphia is the venerable Independence Hall, which derives its name from the fact that within its walls was declared: "That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; and that all political connection between us and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." The building was originally the State-house for the public business of Pennsylvania. The great bell in the tower came from London, in 1752, and bore the strangely prophetic inscription: "Proclaim Liberty throughout all the land, to all the inhabitants thereof," which mandate was obeyed July 4, 1776, when, at the completion and adop-

tion by Congress of the Declaration of Independence, the bell rang out a merry peal in token of the new-born freedom of a nation. The building contains an interesting collection of Revolutionary and Colonial relics. In front of it stands a fine statue of Washington, erected by the school children of the city.

Carpenters' Hall, near Chestnut Street, is the scene of the meeting of the First Continental Congress, and here the news of the cannonading of Boston by the British drew forth the first prayer uttered in that Congress. Not far away is the house in which the great Virginia statesman, Thomas Jefferson, wrote the Declaration of Independence.

The United States Mint, in Spring Garden Street, is the chief coining institution in the country, founded in 1792. Fully 30,000 persons visit this interesting building annually, and attendants escort them through the coining-rooms—where all operators work behind bars—explaining the processes of the wonderful machinery, which converts bars of gold and silver into the coins we use in everyday life.

There are more than five hundred churches in the city, from the severely plain old Quaker meeting-houses to the magnificent buildings of the Episcopalians and the Roman Catholics. The oldest of the Episcopal churches is Christ Church, built in 1727, the place of worship of the royal governors and later of Presidents Washington and Adams. Its chime of bells rang in American freedom, was hidden in Lehigh Valley during the British occupation of the city, then was brought back and still calls the faithful to prayer. The communion service was presented by Queen Anne in 1708. In the vaults below are the tombs of John Penn, Robert Morris, and other fathers of the Church and State. In the churchyard one may gaze upon the grave of the greatest of American philosophers—Benjamin Franklin.

No other American city has such a vast and mag-

nificent City Hall as Philadelphia. It contains five hundred and twenty rooms, and a tower 535 feet high, exceeding the height of the tallest cathedral spire in Europe or the Great Pyramid of Egypt. This tremendous tower is crowned by a colossal statue of William Penn, the founder of Philadelphia.

The University of Pennsylvania is the outgrowth of an academy founded by Benjamin Franklin in 1749. It occupies a site of six acres in West Philadelphia, and has departments of the arts, sciences, law, and medicine.

Girard College was founded for the education of poor white orphan boys by Stephen Girard, once a poor French cabin-boy on a ship, who rose to be the richest merchant in Philadelphia, and was able to loan the Government $5,000,000 in a single year. The chief building of the college is the finest existing specimen of white marble Corinthian temple architecture.

In its manufacturing products Philadelphia ranks next to New York. There are more than twenty thousand manufacturing establishments, with a combined capital of about $500,000,000. The chief products are clothing, machinery, woolen and cotton goods, petroleum, locomotives and ships. The latter are constructed in the great ship-building yards of the Cramps on the Delaware river, east of the heart of Philadelphia, where the largest of battleships are made for the United States and for many foreign governments. The concentration of manufacturing interests at Philadelphia has been stimulated by the vast and inexhaustible deposits of iron, coal, and oil in many parts of Pennsylvania. Of the several great railways that converge at this point, the largest and most powerful pass through the mining and oil regions.

Fairmount Park is the special pride of Philadelphians, and it is indeed a noble pleasure-ground, covering more than 2,000 acres. It has delightful promenades and drives, streams and lakes, a zoölogical

garden, and works of art. Several old mansions, rich in history and tradition, have been preserved carefully within the park's domains. The most interesting of these is the house built for William Penn, in advance of his arrival, which stood on the banks of the river, and in which the placid old Quaker enjoyed his brief hours of leisure. It was removed to the Park in 1883.

In Fairmount Park was held, in 1876, the great Centennial International Exposition, to commemorate the birth of American independence. Hundreds of buildings were erected displaying the products of the civilized world. Most of these buildings were removed but Memorial Hall was erected to remain as a permanent monument of the great exhibition.

The far-seeing Penn spoke even more wisely than he knew when he said of the site of the now magnificent metropolis: "Of all the many places I have seen in the world, I remember not one better seated, so that it seemed to me to have been appointed for a town."

Pompeii.

A LOST CITY.

ON the Bay of Naples, many centuries ago, lay a beautiful city, the date of whose founding is unknown, though some of its oldest ruins show the style of building in use six hundred years before the birth of Christ. The name of this city was Pompeii, and from its neighborhood to the Greek colonies of southern Italy it acquired a culture far superior to that of Rome at the same period. It was brought under Roman rule about a hundred years before Christ's advent, but was allowed to manage its own political affairs. The unsurpassed beauty of its location and its delightful climate made Pompeii a favorite resort of wealthy Romans, who built magni-

ficent marble dwellings, temples, baths, and theaters within its walls, and led therein a life of unbounded gayety and pleasure.

The city lay at the foot of the tremendous cone of Mount Vesuvius, the dark shadow of which only served to enhance by contrast the beauty of the sparkling bay and the wonderful marble city. Not within the memory of anyone living, up to the year 62 A.D., had this gigantic over-shadowing neighbor given the least indication that within his bossom he held a dread destroyer, only sleeping. In that year, however, an earthquake shocked the surrounding country severely, injuring many of the Pompeiian dwellings, which were speedily rebuilt. But even then the inhabitants of the gay city did not suspect that the earthquake was caused by Vesuvius, nor did they dream that the mighty mountain was a volcano. Life flowed on in an endless round of pleasure within the blooming city of Venus. Above the marble temple of the goddess of beauty, and similar temples to Jupiter, Hercules, and all the gods, above the public squares, girdled with rows of exquisite marble columns, above the elegant theater, the forum, and a vast arena, spread a sky that was mild in winter and gave refreshing breezes in summer.

The streets were filled with a people whose skilful hands prepared the costly stuffs brought by the ships that crowded the harbor—from Egypt, Phœnicia, and Cyprus. The Emperor Titus and his courtiers came here for rest and relaxation; the walls of their dwellings were brilliant with luxuriant coloring and designs of Greek artists; the floors were splendid with mosaics. Every pitcher, jar, and bowl was a perfect work of art. Beauty was added to beauty until it was a city fit for the gods.

But on the 23d of August, 79 A.D., a fierce wind arose, and presently with the moaning of the trees and the water mingled an ominous roar. It was not

thunder—the sun was shining. The roar came from the mountain! The people rushed out of their houses and gazed at it in terror. The mountain thundered ever louder and louder, with a sound like a continual cannonade; the people, fearing another earthquake, began to seize their movable possessions and fly for safety. There were loud calls of men, shrieks of women and children, wails and cries of frightened animals, prayers to all the gods.

Suddenly the mountain gave vent to its long pent-up rage. Filled to the brim, it split its chalice with a terrific noise; from its summit rose to a great height a black column, expanding at the top like a gigantic umbrella. From this terrible cloud a shower of red-hot stones and cinders began to rattle down into the peaceful gardens and smooth-paved streets.

The threatening cloud spread, the light of day became overcast until a terrifying darkness reigned, lighted only by great sheets of flame rushing up through that hovering cloud and reddening the sea to its depths. In a short time most of the Pompeiians had fled from the city; but, many, expecting that the storm would pass, shut themselves in their houses.

Horror was added to horror; an earthquake shook the doomed city; walls toppled over, roofs fell in, temples and columns crashed to the ground; and a rain of ashes drifted down from the black pall swaying overhead.

All at once the mountain grew silent—suddenly, almost instantly. An awful stillness terrified even more all who remained within sight of the city, watching for what should come next.

The hours of night wore away, but the blessed daylight did not come! There was no sunrise; a gray twilight covered the land. The air was thick and suffocating; there was no sky, no sea—it had receded from the shore, as if in terror. The land lay beneath a shroud of ashes. And still the thick flakes fell like

black snow, mingled with hot pumice-stone, the layers rising higher and higher, till the streets of the city were filled; the still fleeing people stumbled and fell, or were struck down by heavy stones; choked by sulphurous vapors, and unable to rise, they in their turn were covered. Those still cowering in their houses were at last the only beings left alive. Then, with a roar like the bursting of a thousand rivers from their dams, a deluge of hot liquid mud arose from the yawning crater and overwhelmed Pompeii in a final flood, completely burying it.

The Emperor Titus tried to clear and rebuild the city, but at that time it was a hopeless task, soon abandoned, and Pompeii remained a heap of hardened mud and ashes.

THE TRAGEDY REVEALED.

Centuries passed over the lost city. With returning spring tides, vegetation sprang up on the field of ashes; men returned to the dangerous but fertile and beautiful region, settled on the charming shore, planted crops, and cast their nets in the sea. Humble huts were built atop of the marble palaces; the language of the place became Italian instead of Greek and Latin; the site and the very name of Pompeii were forgotten.

One day, in the year 1592, more than fifteen hundred years after the frightful catastrophe, an Italian architect, Domenico Fontana, in making excavations for an aqueduct in this region, came upon some ancient buildings. Further excavation went on, but no one knew what city it was beneath the soil until 1789, when important discoveries were made. An inscription on one of the buildings was found which revealed the great mystery, and the world was startled at learning that here lay the long-lost Pompeii, and near it a sister city, Herculaneum, overwhelmed on the same day by a river of lava flowing from the burning mountain.

Excavations were again begun and carried on irregularly until 1861, when the work was taken in hand systematically, and it has proceeded slowly but steadily ever since, until somewhat more than half the city has been uncovered. A bit of the ancient world lies before our astonished eyes today. We wander through the streets, enter the open, empty houses, with an odd fancy that all the owners are absent on some festival and will soon return.

Herculaneum was buried in lava, and its excavation is as different as would be the hewing of a city out of solid rock; but the ashes and mud that covered Pompeii were comparatively easy to clear away, and they formed a mould around objects and persons, so that when brought forth they were as perfect as when first buried.

The plan of Pompeii was very simple. Two parallel streets divided it from east to west, and a longer street cut it in half from north to south. These six divisions were intersected by many narrow lanes and by-ways. The chief life of the city was concentrated in the southern portion, where lay its very heart—the grand forum, set with beautiful open arcades. Twenty-two pedestals, which supported statues of honored men, are still standing, but the statues were destroyed.

The private dwellings of the rich, and also of the laboring classes, are the objects that chiefly interest every one, for they reveal to us the actual daily domestic life of an ancient people. A Pompeiian dwelling was built, not one floor above but behind another. First comes the entrance-hall, with surrounding rooms for the master's use and for domestic work; behind this were situated the private rooms, where the handsomest furniture was kept, and paintings adorned the walls; in the rear of these was a division containing the dining and sleeping-rooms; and back of all was the garden. This arrangement permitted the use of orna-

mental marble columns and arches, without danger of overweight, and made it possible to have all sorts of water-works, fountains and basins.

We see that the architect and the painter were liberally employed to make Pompeii a home for art. All trades and callings tried to produce beautiful forms. Lovely Greek temples ornamented the grassy slopes; smiling villas descended to the very edge of the waves by noble flights of steps; and behind this brilliant scene stood the gray walls of the city, whence the land rose in a gentle slope to the top of the mountain.

Within the villas we see walls aglow with forms of graceful dancers and mythological figures that seem to float in air. These pictures and the numerous inscriptions have not been much injured. Some of the latter are of great interest, as their simple, everyday phraseology brings us in close human touch with the long dead people.

And what a wealth of splendid vessels and household utensils these people possessed! Gold, and gilded ivory, pearls and precious stones, were used to decorate tables, and chairs, dishes and cups. Elegant lamps hung from the ceiling, and little lamps of exquisite shape lighted the private rooms at night. How old and cold and serious we moderns feel as we gaze at this abode of pleasure adorned by the beauty-loving Greeks. In the Museum at Naples is preserved a large collection of some of the finest among these exhumed treasures; table services of gold and silver, a lady's gold and ivory toilet articles, children's play-things, and innumerable objects of touching interest.

The most deeply pathetic of the exhumations are the casts of human bodies found in the streets and houses. One poor mother lay beside her three children, hands clasping hands. A lady was found lying on the floor, with a bag of gold clutched in one hand and one of jewels in the other. The most striking figure of all was that of a brave Roman sentinel, who

stood at his post in his sentry-box, regardless of the doom settling down upon the city. Sword in hand, covering his mouth with his drapery to keep out the fumes, there he stood, and was found, centuries later, a magnificent monument of faithfulness to duty.

Rome.

THE GOAL OF MILLIONS OF PILGRIMS.

THE history of Italy, which in ancient times made herself mistress of the world, is more fascinating than any romance of fiction, and reading it awakens a desire to visit the central spot of her power and glory—Rome, the Eternal City ! Approaching it by the famous Flaminian Way, constructed two hundred and twenty years before the birth of Christ, one enters by the Porto del Popolo (Gate of the People). The inscription over its arch—"To a happy and prosperous entry"—is alone a promise of pleasure.

Within the gate is a beautiful fountain representing Neptune with his attendant Tritons, and another showing a statue of Minerva and the river-gods. From the Piazza (square) del Popolo three streets lead respectively to that quarter of modern Rome occupied chiefly by foreigners, the Piazza di Spagna (Spain), so called because the building that accommodates the Spanish Embassy stands there; to St. Peter's Church and the Palace of the Vatican, and the principal thoroughfare, called the Corso, leading to the Capitol and the Forum.

The Church of Santa Maria del Popolo is a museum of sculpture and painting; a chapel within it was planned by the great artist Raphael; the magnificent ceiling of mosaics was designed by him; and he was the sculptor of a statue of Jonah within its walls; this is the only building in which the celebrated painter is represented as both architect and as sculptor.

ST. PETER'S, ROME.—This cathedral, said to be built over St. Peter's tomb, is the largest and most famous in Christendom. The foundation-stone was laid in 1506 but it took about 200 years to complete. Many great men helped in planning and decorating it, among them Michaelangelo, who designed the dome.

ST. PETER'S.

From the top of the Pincian Hill and Gardens, the favorite resort of visitors, is a magnificent view; all Rome is spread before us, and above the sea of roofs tower the dome of St. Peter's and the Palace of the Vatican—the goal of millions of pilgrims. St. Peter's, the largest church in the world, planned by Raphael, by Michael Angelo, and by others of less renown, is a marvel of grandeur. It stands in the Square of St. Peter, with an approach of two curved white marble colonnades, which, taking the line around the outside and joining the ends, measure 913 feet. Its site is on that of the Circus of the tyrant Nero, where hundreds of Christians suffered martyrdom. As early as 106 A. D., a small building for prayer, called an oratory, was erected on this spot to mark the place where it was said St. Peter was buried after his crucifixion. In 319 the Emperor Constantine founded a basilica (a hall in which a king administered laws made by himself) on the same site, which stood for more than a thousand years, when Pope Nicholas V, in 1450, determined to erect a more magnificent one in its place, and also to build a permanent residence for the popes and cardinals, which should be the most splendid palace in the world. The work on the church lasted one hundred and seventy-six years, and in splendor it has never been equaled. The great dome was designed by that master magician in art, Michael Angelo. Countless monuments, altars, chapels, pictures, and mosaics are on every hand, and the treasury is rich in works of art, jewels, and superb vestments.

Within these stately walls are celebrated the great ceremonies of the Catholic Church; here a new pope is crowned; and here he celebrates high mass in person on the days of the great Church festivals.

THE VATICAN.

The Vatican adjoins St. Peter's. Here dwells the head of the Church, surrounded by a court like that of

royalty. Within these walls are some of the greatest masterpieces of art. Here also we find the famous Sistine Chapel, with its wonderful ceiling, the work of Michael Angelo, and also his fresco painting of the Last Judgment, which occupies the whole of one wall.

Among other wonders of the Vatican are rooms filled with the works of Raphael. One of these, the Transfiguration, is said to be the finest picture in the world. When the great artist died, it was carried in the procession that accompained his body to the grave.

Among the statues whose reproductions are familiar to all are the Apollo Belvedere, the famous group of the Laocoön, and the winged Mercury.

The Vatican library possesses 24,000 rare and ancient manuscripts and 50,000 printed books, which scholars from all countries are allowed to examine.

A STROLL THROUGH THE CITY.

Modern Rome has handsome shops and picturesque dwellings, loaded with balconies, which on days of public festivals are hung with bright draperies and filled with gayly dressed Italians, whose cheerful and childlike nature seems to delight in as many holidays as possible; but as we pass along the Corso we note traces of ancient times and works. In the Via dei Pontifici are the remains of the family tomb built by the great Emperor Augustus, 28 B.C. The emperors Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, and Nerva were buried here also; but now this ancient edifice serves as an open-air circus for the amusement of the youthful Romans of today!

Ascending the broad stairway leading up the Capitoline Hill, we come upon the spot from which Brutus addressed the people after he had stabbed Cæsar. From the summit of the Capitoline is a wonderful view. There are the massive walls of one of the villages from which the empire sprang; yonder is the terrible Tarpeian Rock from which traitors were

THE COLISEUM, ROME.—This splendid ruin represents what remains of the greatest amphitheatre ever erected in Rome. Built as a place for such amusements as gladiatorial combats, etc., it became the scene of the martyrdom of early Christians. It is said to have seated nearly 90,000 persons.

hurled, taking the frightful leap that "cured all ambition"; those hills are the same on which Hannibal encamped; down there is the Forum, where throngs listened spellbound to the eloquence of Cicero; we see the spot where the murdered Cæsar fell; we turn our gaze on the Appian Way, built by Appius Claudius.

The Palatine Hill was the nucleus of ancient Rome, where Romulus built the first Roman wall and here, in later centuries, stood the magnificent Palace of the Cæsars, now a gigantic mass of ruins.

Along the ancient Triumphal Way, great generals and emperors once passed, surrounded by crowds of applauding people, when they returned from foreign conquests. Here is the Arch of Constantine, erected by that monarch when he was converted to Christianity. The Arch of Titus was built to commemorate the destruction of Jerusalem, which occurred 70 A.D., when thousands of Jews, as enslaved prisoners, were brought to Rome by Titus and forced to march before him into the city, bearing, as trophies won by their conquerors, their own precious objects from their ruined Temple, sacred gold and silver vessels, the seven-branched candlestick, and the long silver trumpets. The historic scene is carved on the Arch, and as we gaze upon it we realize that here sacred and secular history meet, and that this stone memento of the ruin of the Holy City is a proof of the correctness of the stories in the Scriptures.

THE COLISEUM.

The Coliseum, now the most famous ruin in the world, begun by the Emperor Vespasian, 72 A.D., and finished under his son Titus in 80. The original building covered six acres, and had a length of 630 feet and a height of 202 feet. Within it was a mass of costly marbles, ivory, gold and gems; the awnings were of silk, and fountains of perfumed water cooled the air. Eighty-seven thousand spectators could be

seated in this vast amphitheater, to witness fierce gladiatorial combats, fights among wild beasts, and the martyrdom of many Christians. Only one third of the original building remains, since for centuries it was treated as a sort of quarry, from which the stones were taken to build palaces and churches; but even from the part that remains its original vastness is realized; it seems imperishable, and promises to fulfill the old prophecy of the pilgrims of the eighth century:

> While stands the Coliseum, Rome shall stand;
> When falls the Coliseum, Rome shall fall;
> And when Rome falls—the world!

THE PANTHEON.

Of the three hundred and sixty-five churches of Rome many have been constructed from the ruins of ancient basilicas; two, the Temple of Vesta, now the Church of Santa Maria del Sole, and the famous Pantheon, now the Santa Maria Rotonda, have merely been transferred from pagan to Christian worship. The Pantheon is the only ancient building in Rome in a perfect state of preservation. It was dedicated, 27 B.C., to "all the gods"; and in 610 A.D. it was consecrated as a Christian church. Its wonderful dome was the model for that of St. Peter's, and also for that of the Church of St. Sophia at Constantinople, now a Mohammedan mosque. Within the Pantheon lie the remains of the great painter, Raphael. No other building in the world so impresses the beholder with a sense of the reality of the past.

CHURCHES—BATHS—PALACES.

The Church of St. John Lateran (so called because it is built on the site of estates owned by the ancient family of Lateranus) is the Cathedral of Rome, the oldest of Christian churches. The original church was founded in 319; overthrown by an earthquake in 896, and burned in 1308, but it has risen from each catas-

THE CAPITOL, ROME.—At the head of the broad stairway leading to the Capitol are colossal statues of Castor and Pollux. In the center of the square is the magnificent bronze equestrian statue of Marcus Aurelius.

trophe grander than before, and stands today unsurpassed in splendor.

Near the northern Sebastian Gate are the Baths of Caracalla, built by the infamous emperor of that name two hundred years after the birth of Christ. They accommodate sixteen hundred bathers, and an examination of the structure shows that the manner of bathing was much the same as in the Turkish bath of the present day. In this vicinity are some of the principal catacombs, vast labyrinths of galleries dug in the earth around Rome, and once forming its ancient Christian cemeteries. They were begun in the days of Christ, and were used for three hundred years.

Ancient and modern mingle with curious nearness throughout Rome. Heathen temples have been changed to Christian churches with the same ease as the great sewer (Cloaca Maxima), an enormous structure of the early kingdom, has been made to serve today as a drain for the city.

In the superb palaces, built by some of the most ancient and wealthy Roman families, are wonderful galleries filled with treasures of art, most of them open to the public. Among these are the immense Palazzo Doria and the Palazzo Colonna. In the Palazzo Spada is preserved Rome's most precious possession—the statue of Pompey, fellow-consul with Cæsar before the latter became Imperator, at the foot of which, stabbed by traitors, "great Cæsar fell." The Palazzo Rospigliosi contains the celebrated fresco painting of Aurora and the Hours, by Guido Reni, another Roman painter of renown.

MODELS.

An interesting and characteristic group of a certain class of natives may be found in some parts of the city; these are artists' models, waiting patiently to be engaged; pretty girls in peasant costume, old men with venerable beards and picturesquely draped

cloaks, bright-eyed boys and girls, shepherds, musicians, flower-sellers—a motley but charming picture, just as we find them.

The population of modern Italy is 32,000,000, and of Rome nearly 2,000,000. In the latter part of the nineteenth century great improvements were made in the sanitary arrangements of Rome, and now it is as healthful as any place in the country.

It has been said that the history of Rome is the history of the world, for every important nation of the past has contributed to her civilization. That civilization has given to us almost everything of value that has come to us from antiquity, and this great heritage will remain a permanent possession of mankind.

San Francisco.

THE GOLDEN CITY.

ABOUT half way between Central America and Alaska there is a deep break in the American coast-line of the Pacific Ocean. A narrow strait cuts the shore and gives entrance to a gulf whose waters run up into a beautiful, rich country, blessed with a wonderfully serene climate. On the forty-mile long peninsula formed by the gulf, stands the city of San Francisco, chief port of the western coast, the metropolis of the State of California, containing nearly 500,000 inhabitants.

The coast was known to the Spanish people, through their countrymen in Mexico, a long time before any settlement was made upon it; at the close of the war between England and France, in 1763, English navigators, who had gained control of the French colonies in America, were exploring distant seas, to establish new centers of British power. Spain, aroused to fear lest they should seize the coast

of California, sent religious colonists there to claim the land, hoping to found new cities and provinces. Roman Catholic priests arrived, attended by small bands of soldiers, and founded missions; they intended first to Christianize the Indians and then to form the foundation of new Spanish cities. The first settlement was at San Diego, but in 1769 the monks and soldiers discovered the Bay and the Golden Gate. Seven years later, in 1776, while the Americans in the eastern colonies were in full revolt against England, a little Spanish expedition, marching from Monterey, founded San Francisco, the name of which until 1847 was Yerba Buena ("good herbs"), so-called from the medicinal herbs found in the land by Indians and Mexicans. There were two monks, seventeen soldiers with their families, and a few other men.

In the early days the town was composed of the Mission, with its church and its Indian village, and the Presidio, or garrison, existing only for the protection of the monks. Hundreds of Indians were converted to Christianity, but in time they were driven back into the wilderness before the advance of the whites that kept coming to the new land. The first Mission was called Dolores, and its buildings were within the limits of the later city.

The Americans tried to buy California in 1835, but Mexico would not sell it. After the Mexican War with the United States, however, in 1847, the flowery paradise on the western sea became the prize of the American victors.

THE ROMANCE OF '49.

In 1848, near a settlement two hundred miles from San Francisco, some men found in a stream bits of yellow metal, which proved to be gold. Soon the people on the coast began to realize that there was treasure among the hills, and San Francisco was almost deserted by men. The news spread; an

immense flow of immigration poured into California. In 1847 the town had three hundred inhabitants; at the close of 1849 it had 20,000. For a long time a state approaching anarchy reigned in San Francisco, owing to the throngs of mad gold-seekers from all parts of the world, many of whom were of the worst character and defied all law or restraint. A band of honest men organized themselves into a company called the Vigilance Committee, and within three months drove away the lawless; after that the city's progress was rapid and fairly peaceful.

Many a romance could be told of the California favorites of fortune who discovered the richer mines. Four Irish bartenders in San Francisco worked as partners in a mine which turned out to be a mountain of silver, from which in ten years $125,000,000 worth of ore was taken. Such riches, found so near San Francisco, had the effect of making it eventually one of the gayest, most magnificent, and extravagant cities in the world. Splendid buildings of every kind were erected, sometimes on unfavorable sites, for much of the land was reclaimed from the bay. Huge steam-shovels were kept busy for twenty years cutting down sand-hills and carting material to make solid ground for the growing city. Some of the most substantial buildings were reared on piles driven to bed-rock through made ground. Golden Gate Park, bordering the ocean, was a waste of shifting sands, but it was filled in with solid earth and in time became one of the beautiful parks of America. Many of the gold and silver and railway kings, as they were called, chose to build their palaces on an elevation which in the slang of the day was called "Nob Hill." North of the city stands a bold eminence called Telegraph Hill, from the fact that before the days of the electric telegraph signals were displayed from its summit on the approach of ships, indicating to the citizens the character of the incoming vessels.

THE EARTHQUAKE OF 1906.

The old Market Street was an important thoroughfare, running from the water front through the business section out to the Dolores Mission on the outskirts of the city. Kearney Street was the favorite promenade, among the brilliant shops and luxurious restaurants. The larger theaters and hotels were on or near these streets. Some of the finest buildings were erected with fortunes acquired in the mines; the famous Palace Hotel, for instance, thus commemorated the Crown Point Bonanza. It was a magnificent structure, the paradise of the lucky gold-finders, the dream of the weary miner, who looked forward to the day when he, too, should "strike pay dirt" and revel in the splendors of the Palace. An intricate network of iron rods, riveting all parts of the building together, was intended as a defense against earthquakes, always frequent in California. Many other large structures were provided with similar safeguards. But a day came—April 18, 1906—when rods and bars were snapped like sticks of wood; edifices of stone, marble, and brick were shaken into heaps, as a child knocks down its houses built of blocks; and the gay, rich, and beautiful city was laid in ruins by one of the greatest earthquakes of modern times. Fires broke out everywhere, and added greater horror to the general destruction, for the water mains were broken and for lack of water the fire department was helpless.

Many persons were killed—how many never will be known; thousands fled to the refuge of the Golden Gate Park, thousands more got over the ferries to Oakland and Berkeley, and camped for days and weeks on the vast grounds of the University of California. The story of this frightful catastrophe may be read in other publications that appeared shortly after it occurred. That which interests the world today, and commands its admiration, is the dauntless

courage and splendid enterprise the people of San Francisco are showing in the rebuilding of their city, which began almost before the heat of the conflagration had died out. Within five years a new city has risen from the ashes of the old; and though to a certain extent the new San Francisco is modeled after the ruined city, her architects and builders have constructed it differently, so that in the event of another visitation no structure shall invite disaster, such as was the case with the former numerous wooden buildings and towers, but all shall be able, so far as human skill can make it, to withstand the strongest shocks. Many of the new structures are of exquisite design, though now where many a tall, towered building once stood one of only two or three stories has been reared.

THE TENT-CITY.

A week after the disaster a huge tent-theater sprank up like a mushroom from the ruins and was well attended by the amusement-loving people. Now there are more than twenty theaters, and in 1910 elaborate festivities were held to celebrate the opening of the new Palace Hotel—again the center and symbol of the wealth and pride of this attractive city of the West, whose industries have started up anew. Her railways and her shipping are as crowded as ever; the Golden Gate is still the portal of opportunity and wealth in the most fertile land under the sun, and the new San Francisco will rise beside it to completion, built by human faith and endeavor, and tireless energy. The lesson of cheerfulness and labor is preached aloud by the ringing voices of hammer, pick-axe, and trowel, and that which is to be the youngest and fairest of great cities is once more lifting up her head and smiling to sea and sky.

St. Louis.

THE MOUND CITY.

IN 1763 a Frenchman whose name was Pierre Ligueste Laclède, one of the pioneers in a settlement called St. Geneviève, on the western bank of the upper Mississippi River, obtained permission from the Spanish authorities then controlling the Louisiana territory to carry on a fur trade with the Indians of the Missouri River, and those west of the Mississippi above the Missouri, as far north as St. Peter's River. He organized a firm known as Laclède, Maxert and Company, or the Louisiana Fur Company, and set out with an expedition from New Orleans to establish a new trading-post. The brave pioneers spent most of the winter making their way through forests, in continual danger from Indians and wild animals. They stayed a part of the time at Fort de Chartres, from which place, in February, 1764, its commander, Colonel Auguste Chouteau, with a band of followers, preceded Laclède to a spot sixty miles above St. Geneviève. Discovering a pleasantly situated bluff on the western bank of the river they decided to settle there. Laclède joined them in March, and the place of a future town was laid out, Laclède naming the village for the patron saint of the French King, Louis XIV. In 1765 it was made the capital of the upper Louisiana territory, with a French governor, who presented to Laclède two valuable grants of land in the new town, which grew rapidly in size and importance. Laclede died suddenly, twelve years later, while sailing in his own boat down the river to New Orleans.

The transfer by France to the United States of the Louisiana territory was made in 1804, the formal proceedings in this country (after the negotiations in France between Napoleon and the American representatives) took place on 9 March in the town of St. Louis. The first brick building was erected in 1813,

and in 1817 the first vessel operated by steam made its way up the Mississippi from New Orleans, the pioneer steamboat of the great traffic on the "Father of Waters" that remained the chief channel of trade for St. Louis until the railroads claimed their share of transportation.

In time the Mississippi was deepened at its mouth so as to admit sea-going vessels of the largest size, which made the city a great receiving-station for grain from the vast fields of the Northwest on its way to foreign ports.

St. Louis was made a city in 1822, and from that time until 1860 its progress kept pace with that of other large American cities; many new industries were established and great factories were built; fine streets, avenues, and parks were laid out; handsome hotels and residences were erected, besides schools, hospitals, and public buildings. During the period of the Civil War the city was held for the Union and was frequently filled with troops. It was a base of supplies for the Union army, and a large hospital for wounded soldiers was erected there.

THE INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION OF 1904.

At the one hundredth anniversary of the Louisiana Purchase (1904) an international exposition, or world's fair, was held in St. Louis to celebrate that event, so important to the development of the great West. The cost of the Exposition buildings was $15,000,000.

The city is the port of entry for Missouri and the metropolis of the State. It covers an area of 61 square miles, and ranks fourth among American cities in its manufactures and in the number of inhabitants, having a population of 687,000. It is built on rising ground, in three great terraces, the highest of which is two hundred feet above the level of the river. Its fine situation in the heart of the vast valley of the Mississippi makes it one of the greatest commercial cities of

the United States. Nearly eight thousand great manufacturing establishments are situated there, and an enormous trade is done with the entire country, in grains, meats, lumber, and tobacco.

The climate is mild and healthful, an almost unceasing high wind being the only drawback to its enjoyment by strangers. More than five hundred miles of streets are built up with beautiful houses and magnificient public buildings, chief of which is the city hall, which cost $2,000,000, the Four Courts building, planned after the Palace of the Louvre in Paris, and costing $500,000, the post-office and custom-house, a massive structure costing $6,500,000, and the union railway station which cost $6,000,000 and is used by twenty-one different roads.

One of the greatest bridges in the world crosses the Mississippi in the heart of the city, a lofty steel structure which cost $10,000,000, and is used for both railway and highway traffic.

St. Louis is famous for the number and beauty of its parks, which cover more than three thousand acres, and on which enormous sums of money have been spent. The most noted of these are Tower Grove Park and the Missouri Botanical Garden, once known as Shaw's Gardens, from having been laid out and presented to the city by Henry Shaw, a wealthy citizen. The Botanical Garden contains every variety of shade-tree, fruit-tree, shrub, and flower, also a labyrinth, a museum, and a botanical library.

St. Petersburg.

A CITY BUILT TO ORDER.

LIKE our own capital, St. Petersburg, the modern capital of Russia, is a city built to order. The closing of the Bosporus by the Turks led Peter the Great to seek a new seaport. The Black Sea port being closed by the Turks at Constantinople, Peter

determined to build another on the Gulf of Finland. He chose the mouth of the river Neva, and there, in the north of Russia, the Russian capital now stands. "Here I will make my seaport and my capital," Peter said to himself. And he did so.

The city sprang up almost like one in a fairy tale. Thousands of piles had to be driven to make a level foundation, for St. Petersburg is built upon six large and many small islands. Granite walls had to be erected to hold back the Neva, and every Russian had to lend a helping hand in this gigantic undertaking. Forty thousand men were drafted every year while the work was in progress. None physically able was exempt, and many nobles plied their spades as diligently as the peasants. Every vessel on sea or river did its share in moving material. Even the convicts worked on it. The task engaged more than a million men, cost many millions of dollars, and occupied several years. All the while the great Russian ruler was supervising the enterprise from a little hut in the swamps. No wonder that the Russians honor and preserve it still.

Thus, more than two hundred years ago, St. Petersburg was built. It now ranks fifth in population among European cities and tenth among the cities of the world, being as large as Philadelphia and more populous than Constantinople. Many travelers call it the grandest city of Northern Europe. Its population is mainly aristocratic, being composed chiefly of the nobility, many government officials, and soldiers. Of course laborers are also represented—no city can do without them—but their number is kept down by police regulations, as is common in Russian cities.

WHAT ST. PETERSBURG IS LIKE.

The houses, none over six stories high, are built somewhat after the manner of those in Paris, Berlin, and New York. There are all three sorts of dwellings—private houses, flats, and apartments—in St.

Petersburg. Every house is well supplied with chimneys, and these indicate extensive heating arrangements within, for St. Petersburg is a cold city. Its winters are long and severe; you will see sparks fly from those numerous chimneys any time between November and May. Every room must have its individual stove or other source of heat, and every window its double sash for the winter. Altogether, St. Petersburg is not a very healthful dwelling-place, and its population does not increase in the way common to such large and important cities. It has kept its rank, however, by its shipping and its progressive ways generally, which Peter had given it.

ST. PETERSBURG'S PALACES AND CHURCHES.

Here and there are great palaces, belonging to the nobility. The famous Winter Palace, where the Emperor holds his receptions, is particularly imposing. It is perhaps as large and as wonderful as the palaces and castles we read about in fairy tales, but this one is real. Its rooms are so large and its halls so wide that you would think the rooms were houses and the halls were streets. And it is all built of marble, too.

Another noteworthy feature about St. Petersburg is its great number of churches. These, rising like huge golden mounds above the surrounding structures, are the "skyscrapers" of St. Petersburg. Their number exceeds four hundred and the largest of them are topped by domes as large as that of the Capitol at Washington. No churches or cathedrals in Europe surpass those of St. Petersburg, some of which cost millions of dollars. Moscow, with its "forty times forty churches" (as Russians always give the number), hardly has anything that can compare in splendor with the best churches of the Russian capital.

But no one could afford, while sightseeing in St. Petersburg, to overlook its most famous thoroughfare—the Nevski Prospect—one of the world's greatest streets. It is something like a combination

of the best of Broadway and Fifth Avenue in New York, for it contains both great shops and costly dwellings.

ST. PETERSBURG'S SUPREMACY.

Like Odessa, the Russian city on the Black Sea, St. Petersburg is a very important commercial seaport, its trade by sea being nearly half that of the whole empire. This shipping, however, is not carried on in Russian vessels, but mostly in British, German, and Norwegian; for, despite the efforts of Peter the Great in ship-building two centuries ago, the Russian merchant-marine is still undeveloped.

For those who have the time to study there are all sorts of schools, colleges, and a large University at St. Petersburg. The children of St. Petersburg have their public schools, their libraries and museums—the same as the children everywhere who reside in large cities. Some of the big public libraries of St. Petersburg rank with that of the British Museum and the great New York Public Library recently erected.

The arm of the sea on which St. Petersburg is situated is so small that a twenty-mile ship canal had to be built to connect it with the deeper waters farther west. Besides, the harbor is ice-bound a third of the year. Yet, in spite of these disadvantages, this city very soon wrested supremacy from Moscow, the former capital of Russia. It is now the finest and most progressive city in the Russian Empire.

Venice.

THE BRIDE OF THE SEA.

THE city of Venice is like a dream in marble, so delicately wrought as to seem the work of fairy fingers, so strong as to have resisted the wear and tear of centuries. Set in the waters of a sunny sea under a bright Italian sky, she is a city of poetry and

of wonderland. Can it be possible that the means of arrival is so commonplace as a modern railway? Yes, a roaring, smoking engine carries you to this spot where the harshest sound is the soft splash of the waters against marble steps, or the warning cry of a gondolier as he rounds a sharp corner into the Grand Canal.

When Lombardy was invaded by conquering Huns in 452 A.D., an Italian people called the Veneti found refuge in the islands at the head of the Adriatic Sea. Here they built their huts. They became fishermen, afterward sailors and traders. Nowhere could be found bolder seamen, keener traders. They prospered. The settlements on the islands grew rapidly; bridges were thrown out, connecting the islands; the traders became great merchants and nobles, and vast wealth came to them.

At first each island was governed by one man; then all came under the control of a single ruler. Finally, in 697, a Duke (or Doge) was elected to authority over the whole of Venice, as it was called by that time, which form of government lasted until 1798. Chosen by the people, a Doge was not allowed to decline the honor of election, on pain of losing his property and being declared a traitor to his country. In time these Dukes of Venice came into enormous wealth and power. Their position was one of great magnificence. And Venice became a city of merchant princes who lavished their riches upon great palaces, the beautifying of the city and the patronage of painters and sculptors. For seven centuries Venice led the world in trade and commerce, in naval and military power, in the arts and sciences. But the victory of the Turks over Christian rule in Constantinople, in 1453, the discovery of a sea-route to India in 1498, and unsuccessful wars with other peoples, caused a gradual falling off of power. The morals of her citizens steadily declined and in the eighteenth century Venice was the scene of extravagant fêtes and constant gayety—the

center of pleasure for the rest of Europe. Finally, after an independent existence for thirteen hundred years, she became a part of the conquering Napoleon's Cisalpine Republic, and afterward of the Italian kingdom. In 1815, after Napoleon's downfall, she was annexed to Austria; but in 1866 the city and its territory became incorporated with the kingdom of Italy.

With all her trials and changes, however, Venice never became a ruin. She is still the Queen of Cities—unique in charm as in the sixteenth century, the golden age of art.

THE CITY OF THE SEA.

This fascinating city is built upon one hundred and seventeen islands, among one hundred and fifty small canals and 2,480 narrow passages; while four hundred bridges unite island to island.

There are many well-paved streets on the islands, and crooked little lanes. It is possible to walk to all parts of the city along the foot-paths bordering the canals, but in order to reach a desired spot one must cross many bridges and large squares.

A strange little black craft called a gondola, with seats in the middle, over which is a canopy; a gondolier standing behind the seats, another sitting in front, each wielding a single oar—such is a Venetian conveyance. There are no horses, no carriages in Venice, only a dark throng of gondolas winding in and out of the waterways, with silent, snake-like ease.

The most splendid of the waterways of Venice is the Grand Canal. It is the most wonderful street in the world, with never the sound of a horse's hoofs or the horn of a motor-car. Taking its magnificent winding course through the city, from the northwest to the Doges' Palace in the southeast, it is lined on either side with the splendid white marble palaces of the nobles, the waves lapping their doorsteps. Spanning it is the beautiful bridge, the Rialto, with its two rows of busy

little shops; it is named after the island, Rivoalto, upon which Venice was founded. Shakespeare mentions the bridge and the neighboring district in his play, *The Merchant of Venice.*

THE GRAND SQUARE OF ST. MARK AND THE CATHEDRAL.

The center of the life of Venice is its beautiful piazza, St. Mark's, always haunted by lovers of beauty, for here is the cathedral, one of the wonders of the world. From the Square it does not look like a church, but rather like a mosque, having great domes, instead of the towers and spires you might expect. Of white marble, gleaming with brilliant mosaics on a ground of gold, with its domes and splendid statues, it is marvelously beautiful against the Italian sky.

Above its central porch are set the four famous antique bronze horses which are supposed to have been brought from Constantinople, and it is beautiful throughout with a thousand spoils of art seized in the days of the greatness of Venice.

It is dim within. But soon you find yourself walking on an intricate and many-hued mosaic composed of many different marbles. A gleam above your head draws your eye to a great domed ceiling, which, to your delight you discover to be entirely composed of gold mosaic. In dim recesses are soft masses of rich color, which prove to be paintings by great Italian masters. "You sit there in a dream; and one by one the pictures and the mosaics, the Gothic images, the cupolas, the arches, the marbles, the alabaster, the porphyry and the jasper appear to you—until what was darkness and gloom appears to be beaming and vibrating with color."

Sometimes may be seen the *pala d'oro,* an exquisite altar-piece composed of enamels and gems, gleaming in a golden setting and picturing Christ with attendant angels and prophets. It was brought from Constantinople in 976, and is without an equal in all the world.

St. Mark became the patron saint of Venice in the eighth century, when his body was brought there from Egypt, and this church was begun in his honor.

THE CAMPANILE AND THE DOGES' PALACE.

Formerly, one of the most striking objects in the city was the campanile, or bell-tower, of St. Mark's, which stood in the square at a short distance from the church. It was three hundred and fifty feet in height, and night and day watchmen in its lofty belfry struck the huge bells with hammers, to mark the hours or give alarm of fire. But in 1902 this ancient and beautiful structure fell, causing great sorrow and consternation throughout Italy, and to all lovers of the beautiful; it is now being rebuilt.

While St. Mark's represents the religious spirit of Venice, the Doges' Palace embodies the idea of her worldly power. It adjoins the church, and is said to be the finest building in the world. It was begun in the fourteenth century and completed in the fifteenth, at the founding of Venetian sovereignty. Entering its princely court, we pause to gaze in wonder at the Giants' Stairway, a marble flight ornamented with gigantic statues of Mars and Neptune. Mounting these steps, we reach a spot on the landing where the Doges were crowned. At the head of these stairs are the famous Lions' Mouths—openings in the heads of stone lions, into which were dropped anonymous or signed letters accusing some person of enmity toward the Republic; these accusations were investigated by the governing body called the Council of Ten, usually with the result of the arrest, torture, conviction, imprisonment, or death of the accused.

In the Hall of the Grand Council in the palace, hang the portraits of all the Doges, from the first to the last, with the exception of one, Marino Falieri, who was executed for alleged conspiracy against the State. In this vast hall are celebrated paintings by

many of Italy's greatest artists; one by Tintoretto, "The Glory of Paradise," the largest picture ever painted, is a magnificent work of art.

THE COUNCIL OF TEN.

Farther on is the Hall of the Council of Ten, the most terrible governing body in history. It originated in the forming of an organization to defeat a conspiracy against the Republic, but its office was made perpetual and lasted until the downfall of the government. Its rule was despotic, assuming the authority of life and death over all Venetian citizens. Punishment of offenses was swift and secret, usually by strangulation in the dungeons connected with the palace, or by drowning in the convenient waters.

THE BRIDGE OF SIGHS.

Spanning the canal between the Doges' Palace and the prison is that most famous of all Venetian bridges, the Bridge of Sighs. Many a prisoner during the centuries has crossed it, taking, with a sigh, a last look through its windows at the bright world without, which he was leaving for either dark imprisonment or cruel death.

THE ARSENAL—THE BUCENTAUR.

Next to St. Mark's and the Palace of the Doges, the Arsenal brings us closest into contact with the historic past. This building has stood on the same spot since 1104, when a fleet of vessels was fittted out for the recovery of the Holy Land from unbelievers. In those days Venice boasted forty battleships, twelve of these being three-deckers; she had arms for 150,000 men, and four thousand pieces of ordnance. As the Arsenal was the Venetians' most important means of defense, its keepers formed a particular set of men, especially cared for by the State. They were born and bred within the Arsenal walls; and as boys began to

receive salaries when they were ten years old. The Arsenal contains a wonderful collection of weapons, trophies, and battleflags, but its most curious possession is the remains of the once magnificent vessel called the *Bucentaur,* on which it was the yearly custom for the Doge to go forth upon the Adriatic Sea and drop into the water a ring, saying: "I espouse thee, O Sea, in token of perpetual dominion." This custom of the "wedding of Venice with the Adriatic" was observed for six hundred years. The pompous vessel was covered with gold plating and crimson velvet; the deck was inlaid with ebony and mother-of-pearl; while eighty-four golden oars sent it gliding over the waters.

The Merceria is the longest street in Venice, and its principal business thoroughfare. In this city of water all food must be brought in from outside, for no provisions are produced in its neighborhood; so other districts send to the merchants of this street supplies of corn, oil, fruit, meat, wine, and all necessaries. The supply of drinking-water also is conveyed through pipes from some distance in the mainland.

SOME VENETIAN ASPECTS.

Gliding along the Grand Canal, we pass many gondolas bearing people of the city, who regard us with the friendly glance of sweet, smiling courtesy characteristic of the well-bred native Italian. Here and there we see the groups of artists' models so familiar in many Italian cities. They congregate in conspicuous places, chatting, laughing, posing in picturesque attitudes, conscious of the admiring glances of strangers. A pretty young girl waves us *addio* as we glide by; we smile, and on we go, stopping at the Academy of Arts for a peep at its contents, which show the rise and progress of art in the City of the Sea. Examples of the works of all the great masters are in the Academy, from the earliest fifteenth-

century painters and their illustrious successors to the great Titian, whose world-renowned painting, "The Assumption of the Virgin," is the chief attraction of the collection.

For centuries Venice was a center for the manufacture of many things; but that time has long since passed, and its industry is now confined chiefly to mirrors, beads, jewelry, silk, velvet, porcelain, and mosaics. It would be pleasant to spend days in the mosaic manufactories, and watch the processes in the art for which Venice is so well known; to visit the glass-works, and see how the exquisitely colored and shaped Venetian glass ornaments are made, as well as the wonderful beads, the variety of which in color, shape, size and beauty would drive to distraction a tribe of North American Indians, should they be called upon to choose among the bewildering array for their favorite decoration.

A LAST GLANCE AT HER GLORIOUS PAST.

Looking back to the glorious past of Venice, we see in our mind's eye Galileo, greatest of all astronomers, discoverer of the earth's revolution around the sun, gazing at the stars with his newly invented telescope from the campanile of St. Mark's in 1607; the poet Petrarch, entertaining his friend, the immortal story-teller Boccaccio; the famous traveler Marco Polo, as a boy, playing at sailing ships on the Venetian canals, and later, when his wonderful travels were ended, receiving the applause of the Venetians and becoming a member of the Grand Council. We look upon the first book printed in Italy, and at a copy of the *Gazetta,* the first newspaper ever published, the appearance of which caused the wildest excitement. We see the Venice Opera House, and in fancy listen to the golden tones of the greatest singers of a former day; we behold Napoleon and Josephine, seated, in triumphant, insolent, imperial splendor, on the bal-

cony of the Palazzo Foscari, watching the sports on the canal below; we mark the last of the Venetian Doges, the venerable Manin, falling senseless as he is called upon to take an oath of allegiance to Austria; finally we behold the wild welcome of the Venetian populace as they hail their new ruler, Victor Emmanuel, King of United Italy!

Vienna.

A CITY GAY WITH MUSIC.

AS a center of population, Vienna may be traced back to the fifth century. Barbarians known as the Winden inhabited the land now occupied by the modern city. From this designation comes the name Wien, by which the city, and the small river on which it stands, is called by Germans today. These were conquered by the Romans, who founded a camp on the spot, which gradually expanded into a village, then a town, then a city, though for a very long time it was of no historical importance or interest. From 1438 for some centuries it was under the rule of dukes and archdukes, and twice was besieged by the Turks. In the winter of 1805-06, and in the summer of 1809, Napoleon's troops occupied the city; but the Corsican's fate was sealed when a great congress of European powers met here in 1814-15 to determine what should be done with him. In the general European revolution of the common people in 1848, the revolutionists hoped for great things from Vienna; but all that happened of importance there was the gaining by Hungary of her right of self-government, for which she had long been struggling. A new constitution, satisfactory to the people, was drawn up in 1861, and the history of the dual nation has been ever since a record of peace and prosperity.

People of all nations throng through the handsome,

lively streets of Vienna, which may be considered the crossroads of the continent. We see Germans, Turks, Jews, Hungarians, Swedes, Swiss, French, Italians and Russians, besides English and Americans in the splendid Ring Street, the wide avenue that surrounds the heart of the city, with double rows of trees down its whole length, and such splendid buildings that it is called one of the finest streets in the world. We admire the immense white marble Parliament House; the Court Theater, also of marble, sculptured with figures telling the story of the world's drama; the famous university, with its nine courts, its splendid halls, library and reading-room.

VIENNA'S BUILDINGS AND STREETS.

The two imperial museum buildings face each other across a square, in the center of which stands, surrounded by fountains and flowers, a great monument to Maria Theresa, Austria's noble empress. The third side of the square is occupied by the imperial stables, containing several hundred fine horses and splendid carriages, and the fourth by the imperial palace. This we are allowed to visit, and in the treasure vaults, strictly guarded, we see a wonderful display of jewels and priceless relics: the crown of Charlemagne; the silver cradle, set with jewels, in which the son of Napoleon and his Austrian empress was rocked; and a marvelous diamond lost by Charles the Bold on a battlefield in 1476, and picked up by a soldier who thought it a pretty bit of glass and sold it for two dollars. Its value is fixed at $125,000.

The great architectural attraction is St. Stephen's Cathedral, in the heart of the city, considered one of the finest specimen of ancient German architecture. Its spire is 444 feet high; the exterior is a mass of rich tracery, the interior of fine carving. Its huge bell was cast from the cannon used by the Turks in their unsuccessful siege of 1683.

The Belvedere, an ancient palace, is now a museum, containing one of the best collections of paintings in Europe, though the most celebrated are in the Imperial Gallery—Titian's "Ecce Homo," "The Holy Family," by Raphael, and several masterpieces by Rubens.

Besides the university, there is another institute of learning, unique of its kind—the Oriental Academy, where young men are instructed in the languages and customs of the Eastern peoples with which Austria has much to do politically. When their studies are finished the young men are employed as secretaries to ambassadors or consuls in the East.

Education is compulsory, and there are innumerable schools which teach everything, from hair-dressing to theology.

As a place of public resort, the Prater is celebrated. It is on a large island formed by two branches of the Danube, and comprises about four thousand acres of noble trees, beneath whose shadows are beautiful walks, seats, lakes, canals, and lawns. Here the children come with mothers and nurses, and enjoy the out-of-door sports so freely furnished.

The chief shopping street is the Graben, where the handsome establishments display as many rich and beautiful things as one sees in Paris. Vienna is famous for its dainty knick-knack ornaments. It weaves some very fine cloths of wool and of cotton; and has great factories of every description. The women work with the men, even at the hard labor of carrying bricks and mortar up ladders on buildings in course of erection.

VIENNESE MUSICIANS.

The Viennese vie with the Italians in their love of music and dancing, and in the number of great composers they may boast of as compatriots. There are many theaters and concert-halls, and a splendid

opera-house, where the best singers in the world are heard. Vienna is full of reminiscences of the three celebrated composers—Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven. Haydn went to live in the suburb of Schönbrunn and died there when very old.

Mozart, the marvelous boy, was born in Austria, and passed his later life in Vienna, the idol of the world. Beethoven, the mighty master, also passed his manhood's years in Vienna; in a neighboring suburb a little park has been made on the spot where he loved to sit.

THE HUNGARIAN CAPITAL—A DOUBLE CITY.

The double city of Buda and Pesth, the capital of Hungary, lies on both banks of the Danube, and is most attractive and gay in appearance. It is a great railway center, and from it railways connect with all parts of Europe. The best shops and houses, and the fine government buildings are in Pesth, which was the first city in Europe to introduce electric railways. The finest street is the Andrassy Road, a noble boulevard lined with splendid villas, palaces, and gardens.

Budapest has a large university, and schools of every kind, in which instruction is given in the Magyar language.

Everywhere about us are evidences of wealth and comfort. As in Vienna, the people seem gay and happy. Nothing occurs to annoy or molest the visitor; no beggars are seen, and no abject poverty is allowed to be publicly displayed. Both countries have a happy people, regarding their Government as mild and paternal; they see their princes and nobles condescending toward them with dignified kindness, and they love them sincerely. Their cheerful nature fits them for quiet enjoyment in themselves, and for promoting it in the other peoples with whom they come in contact.

Washington.

A CAPITAL MADE TO ORDER.

NEAR the point where the Anacostia river joins the Potomac, forty miles southwest of the present city of Baltimore, between the years 1748 and 1751, a tall youth often rode on horseback, drawing his rein to admire the beautiful view at the junction of the rivers. This youth was surveying for Lord Fairfax (beginning the work when he was only sixteen years old) wide tracts of wild land that ran across the Blue Ridge Mountains and through the Shenandoah Valley—an undertaking difficult in itself and dangerous because of the Indians lurking in the forests. But this young man usually accomplished whatever he set out to do, and feared no human being. His name was George Washington. In later years, he used to say that in all his riding throughout the unsettled country no other spot had so strongly appealed to his youthful imagination as a favorable site for a city.

After the Revolution, and two years after George Washington had been chosen to be the first President of the United States, he began planning the future seat of government. Up to that time Philadelphia had been a sort of improvised capital; but it was thought best to found an entirely new city for the new government. A long discussion ensued in Congress as to where this city should be built; neither Northerners nor Southerners being willing that the others' section of the country should be favored. At last it was decided to leave the choice of a site for the nation's capital to the nation's beloved President, and in accordance with an act of Congress, passed March 30, 1791, he chose the site he had admired when a boy, on the Maryland side of the Potomac, a spot then very nearly midway between the northern and the southern limits of the United States.

The President had some difficulty in getting the owners of the desired territory to sell their land. But at last a bargain was made, and two weeks after President Washington had obtained the desired concessions, a large assemblage gathered on the banks of the Potomac; and in their presence, with impressive ceremonies of the order of Free Masons, three commissioners selected by Washington laid the first boundary-stone of the district on the Virginia side of the river. The President wished to call the new capital the "Federal City," and it was so designated until the autumn of 1791, when Congress decided to call the district in which it was to stand the Territory of Columbia and the city itself Washington. A little later the word Territory was changed to District, and as the District of Columbia the concession has been known ever since. The original tract was ten miles square, but in 1846 the portion on the Virginia side of the river was ceded back to that State.

When General Lafayette, in 1777, came to the assistance of the Americans in their struggle for independence, he brought in his train several gentlemen highly accomplished in various professions, among whom was Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant, a skilled military engineer. The President now engaged his services in planning the new town. L'Enfant had broad ideas and was far-sighted; he had no notion of laying out a capital city for only the thirteen States then in existence, with a population of 3,000,000. He foresaw something of the magnificent future of this great country and determined to plan a capital city for fifty States, or more, and for several hundred millions of people, one that should last not for a century, but for a thousand years. He laid out many of the streets at intersecting right angles, but broke the monotonous effect of these squares by cutting through them with long, broad avenues extending from one end of the city to the other.

The States of Maryland and Virginia, pleased at having the capital within their borders, contributed $192,000 toward erecting the necessary public buildings. In the competition among architects for designs for these buildings the plan for a Capitol made by William Thornton, an Englishman, was accepted, and its cornerstone was laid in 1792. A design modeled after the palace of the Duke of Leinster, in Dublin, Ireland, was chosen for the executive mansion called the "President's House," or the "White House," as it is popularly known. But the work of erecting the public buildings and promoting the growth of the town progressed slowly, partly because of strife among those who had the work in charge, but chiefly on account of lack of funds. At last, however, enough money was obtained to complete the Capitol, the President's house, the Treasury Building, and the War Office. But when Washington made his last visit to this nucleus of a town, it was still only a straggling settlement in the woods, containing about fifty small dwellings, with the Capitol and the President's house still unfinished. A few years later, on August 24, 1814, even these buildings were destroyed when a British force marched upon Washington and burned the Capitol and other public buildings. This was a terrible loss to the new Republic; but in time the ruined buildings were replaced by the structures that stand today, the pride of the American people.

THE GREATER CAPITAL.

Still, Washington was for many years a most unattractive place, with few dwelling-houses in the streets and avenues so finely laid out, but unpaved and at night unlighted. Not until the outbreak of the Civil War (1861), with the influx of enterprising men from the Northern States, did the population begin to increase rapidly. During the war the city was the the center of tremendous military operations. It was

fortified soon after the beginning of the conflict by a cordon of sixty-eight earthworks, or forts, and was an important station for supplies for the Northern armies in the South. Great improvements in the city were begun and carried on from 1871 to 1874 by Alexander Robey Shepherd, who was Governor of the District during that period. Previous to that time there had been some discussion as to the advisability of choosing some other location for the national capital; but Shepherd carried on the work of improvement on a scale so gigantic that in four years he transformed Washington from an inconvenient and unfinished-looking town to a city beautiful and comfortable enough to attract residents from all quarters of the country. After this there was no longer any thought of another capital. A territorial government was created for the District of Columbia in 1871, merging Washington and Georgetown into the same government. This was abolished in 1874, and the affairs of the whole District, including those of Washington, are now managed by three commissioners. The citizens of Washington and of the District have no vote either in District or national affairs.

The width of Washington's streets ranges from seventy to one hundred and sixty feet, and their entire length covers more than 265 miles. Some of these streets are numbered; others are designated by letters of the alphabet, while twenty-one of the broad avenues are named after States of the Union. Of these thoroughfares Pennsylvania Avenue is the most celebrated, containing the sites of the Capitol, the White House, the Treasury Building, the Post-Office, and the Court of Claims; and it is the route taken by the grand military and civic processions at the time of presidential inaugurations.

THE CAPITOL.

The Capitol is naturally the most conspicuous and interesting building in Washington. It covers more

than four acres, and is built of Virginia freestone, painted white, and of white marble from Maryland and Massachusetts. The main front has three splendid porticoes, supported by Corinthian pillars. The central portico contains famous groups of statuary, and outside, immediately in front of it, is a collosal statue of George Washington. The building is crowned by a great dome, weighing 8,000,000 pounds. At its apex is a lantern fifty feet high, surmounted by a statue of Liberty. The total height of the edifice, from its base to the crest of the statue, is 285½ feet. As one enters the rotunda beneath this vast dome, he pauses to admire the massive bronze door, the design on which pictures the discovery of America by Columbus. The walls of the rotunda and the concave ceiling of the dome are decorated with panels portraying historical American events. The Senate Chamber in the north wing of the building has accommodation for ninety senators and a thousand spectators. In its rear is a superb apartment called the Marble Room, built wholly of variegated marbles. Next to this is the President's room. The south wing contains the Hall of Representatives, and it is the largest legislative chamber in the world—93 by 139 feet.

THE WHITE HOUSE AND OTHER STATE BUILDINGS.

Next to the Capitol in interest comes the White House, the dwelling of all the Presidents from 1830 to the present day. It is a plain yet handsome edifice, of freestone painted white, 86 by 170 feet, with colonnades in front and a large semi-circular portico at the back. The grounds in front are adorned with fountains, flowers, and shrubbery, and in the rear is a tract of land charmingly laid out, known as the President's Park. The rooms on the ground floor of the mansion are devoted chiefly to public uses; those on the second floor are used for the Executive offices and for the private apartments of the President's family.

The Treasury Building, a mile and a quarter west of the Capitol, is an immense structure, costing $6,000,000. It contains two hundred rooms, among which is the cash room, occupying the height of two stories, and the gold room, usually containing millions of dollars in gold coin.

The building containing the State, War, and Navy Departments is the largest public edifice in Washington—343 by 567 feet—and it cost $11,000,000.

The Patent Office building (which is known also as the Department of the Interior) is a wonderfully interesting place. In its great "model room," which is more than a quarter of a mile long, are models, big and little, representing every department of mechanical art, from a steam engine to a pencil-sharpener.

Among the newest of the public buildings is the Congressional Library, which, with its grounds, occupies a square of ten acres, just east of the Capitol. This is one of the handsomest buildings in the world; it is of white granite, is three stories high, and has forty carved columns on the exterior. The central feature of the interior is the vast reading-room, which is a circular hall, 100 feet in diameter, with many richly carved arches of Moorish design. The Library contains about 2,000,000 books, and can accommodate 4,500,000. It is lighted by 2,000 windows. A lecture-hall and an art-gallery are other features of the building, which is ornamented with many beautiful allegorical mural paintings and statues of eminent men. The Congressional Library was finished in 1897, and it cost $6,347,000.

THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

In 1835 James Smithson, an Englishman interested in the general welfare and educational progress of America, bequeathed more than half a million dollars to the United States government, for the purpose of founding a literary, scientific, and philosophical insti-

tution at Washington, to be called the Smithsonian Institution, "for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." A group of beautiful buildings was erected (1847-55) in a square on the Mall leading down from the Capitol, and a staff of officials were appointed by the government to administer the affairs of a library, a museum, and departments of astronomy, ethnology, meteorology, etc. Its library of 150,000 volumes is unsurpassed in books on all sciences, and from its department of meteorology was developed the United States Weather Bureau, with its branches all over the country. In connection with this establishment is the National Museum, which was founded in 1846 and later came under the management of the Institution. The Museum contains a great display of objects of art and of zoölogical and scientific interest. The value to students of science of these two national establishments is recognized throughout the world.

WASHINGTON'S MONUMENTS.

Washington has many fine monuments erected in honor of celebrated men: Lincoln, Lafayette, Franklin, Webster, Jackson, Farragut, and others, all well known to Americans; but the one that is famous in other countries is the Washington National Monument, erected to the undying glory of the first President. It stands between the Mall and the banks of the Potomac. The corner-stone was laid in 1848, but the monument was not finished until 1884. The stones of which it is built are great blocks of crystal Maryland marble, and it measures 555 feet, five and a half inches—the tallest stone column in the world. Within it are fifty flights of stairs, also an elevator, both ascending to the top of the structure, from the windows of which one obtains a view of marvelous beauty.

As the political capital of the Union, Washington

enjoys a distinction to which no other American city can lay claim. The vast interests connected with legislation for a people of 93,000,000, embracing forty-six States and five Territories, attract to Washington a yearly increasing number of permanent residents. The number of persons in Government employ is more than 16,000.

The members of the Diplomatic Corps, or foreign ministers resident, with their families, occupy handsome legation dwellings in various parts of the city; and many army and navy officers find Washington the most agreeable home in the country. The increasing population (now numbering 331,000) is overflowing into the attractive suburbs, and the now imperial "city of magnificent distances" fully vindicates the judgment of our first President in selecting this site for a national capital.

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